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Geographical versus Sequential History¹

BY E. F. HUMPHREY, NORTHAM PROFESSOR OF HISTORY AND POLITICS,
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We as historians and history teachers have been toiling under the ancient regime of chronological history; time has been the tyrant who under one name or another has guided our every action. Time, in reality, to most of us, is but a term for the experience of duration or succession; our sense of time comes from our experience of change; time itself is an abstraction. Early chroniclers had a more real conception; theirs was a religious regard for, to them, a very real thing. Their modern successors should be the astrologers, or Henri Bergson, with his belief in the reality of the stream of time (*Essai sur les données immédiates de la conscience*) rather than the historian. We might teach from "The World Almanac," "Almanach Hachette," "The Annual Register," "Annuaire de la Revue des deux Mondes," "The Britannica Year Book," "The New International Year Book," "Statesman's Year Book," "Jahrbücher der deutschen Geschichte," or Putnam's "Tabular Views of Universal History," but we don't. We are no longer a priestly caste preserving the religious welfare of the State as were the original chroniclers. We have no particular reverence for exact dates. Modern successors have lost the charm of the Annals, Chronicles, or Histories of Thucydides, Polybius, Tacitus, Eusebius, Orosius, Jérôme, Froissart, Einhard, Villari, The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, or even Poor Richard's Almanac.

We have lost a religious reverence for the phases of the moon; what real chronology we have, we have turned over to the trained specialist, the chronologist, a peculiar sort of antiquarian who spends time trying to reconcile the various systems of the ancient originals; Hindoo, Egyptian, Grecian, Roman, Christian, Mohammedan, etc. What a mess they made of it! Compare the Egyptian chronology as given by James Breasted, Edward Meyer, Flinders Petrie, and Maspero; no two dates agree, except occasionally Breasted with Meyer—such is the American reverence for German scholarship. But what does that matter to us? We can teach or learn Egyptian history fully as well from the exaggerated dates of the Anglo-French alliance of Maspero-Petrie as from the German-American *entente* of Breasted-Meyer.

No one, now-a-days, grows enthusiastic over the relative merits of Catholic and Protestant claims to

chronological superiority as exhibited in "Annales Ecclesiastici" of the Catholic Cardinal Baronius which oppose the Protestant "Magdeburg Centuries." We no longer believe in any mystic potent quality of the date; with us sequence and philosophy has usurped the place of chronology.

Too often, I fear, chronology has degenerated into mere sequence, and history has become an endless succession of wars, treaties, or doings of a mere handful of individual kings, presidents, or statesmen. Let me cite, as evidence, headings taken from a chapter of one of our latest high school texts in American History: Party nominations for the election of 1880; Republican success and the "Solid South;" Factional quarrels within Republican ranks; the Assassination of Garfield; President Arthur; The struggle for civil service reform ends successfully; The nomination of Blaine in 1884; The "Mugwump" movement; The election of a Democratic President; President Cleveland's record; Railroad consolidation leads to the Interstate Commerce Act, 1887; The tariff as a political issue; The tariff commission of 1883; Cleveland's tariff message; The election of 1888; The reduction of the surplus; The McKinley tariff bill, 1890; Reciprocity treaties; Blaine's foreign policy; The Pan-American Congress; Industrial tendencies of this period; Reasons for concentration of industry; Methods of combination; The earliest trust; Anti-trust legislation; Indian wars in the West; Attempts to civilize the Indian; A new land policy. Surely such a selection of topics follows the easy line of sequence. You must admit that it is monotonous—sequential and nothing more.

Ranke's "Zeitgeist" form of history was a splendid effort to relieve the monotony of sequence by evaluating the Spirit of the Ages. No writer has surpassed him in the clearness and brevity with which he could sum up the characteristics of an epoch in the history of the world. With what a relief from the pure sequence history of a Gardiner, for example, we welcomed this "Epochal Significance" sort of history. We at last were allowed to skip some dates, some events. Yet many of the results obtained were questionable.

How was Ranke to evaluate the ages? He asserted the very modest German objective of "simply finding out how the thing actually occurred" (*wie es eigentlich gewesen*). His history was to be written only from "the narratives of eye witnesses and the most

¹ Paper read before the Connecticut Association of Classical and High School Teachers, Hartford, February 12, 1916.

genuine immediate documents" preserved in the archives. His was to be an account without hates or passions; as his disciple Von Sybel remarked *sine ira et sine studio*.

Ranke was not the first to have aspired to such omniscience. Thucydides would set down everything as it occurred, without extenuation or malice; similarly, Polybius whom Cicero condemned as *non exornator rerum sed tantum narrator*. With Cicero we too know that real live history has never been written *sine ira et sine studio*. All intellects believe and are finite and we have to allow in history for a Froude's disease, a Mommsen's disease, and a Beard's disease. Ever poor Ranke turns out to be pro-German.

Try to be impartial Ranke did. He confined himself to archives, and endeavored with the aid of such sciences as epigraphy, paleography, philology, diplomatics, sphragistics, numismatics, etc. to find out the thing as it actually happened. But how did he succeed? He is the "Dryasdust" historian referred to in Carlyle's "Frederick the Great." Heine exclaims, "Poor Ranke! a pretty talent to paint little historical figures and to paste them together, a good soul, as good natured as mutton." Ranke never really got down to history; he dealt, by preference, with rulers and leading figures and stuck strictly to political history. He was not interested in the causes of things, how they came about (*wie es eigentlich geworden*). He was concerned merely with a sequence of a slightly different order, a sequence of persons and ages rather than one of days, or years. He skipped slightly from age to age, from period to period, from ruler to ruler.

Ranke's work started a movement for a more careful evaluation and classification of sources and a comparison of ages and periods. Professor Walsh, of Fordham, has concluded that the thirteenth is the greatest of the centuries; Mommsen chooses the Age of the Antonines; Breasted, the glorious thirtieth century B. C.; and not a few have preferred the eighteenth, nineteenth, or even twentieth centuries. But how is it possible to compare the thirtieth century B. C. with the thirteenth century A. D.? Surely they cannot be evaluated in terms of each other. Another natural offspring of Ranke's *Zeitgeist* is the Herbart-Ziller-Rein Culture Epoch theory of history which is now so thoroughly dead that we no longer discuss it.

All age classifications are purely matters of convenience, arbitrary and but temporary; such classifications are bound to flash and disappear. The once pre-historic age has become more historic than many a later period². Professor Burr of Cornell has reviewed the research on the subject of the period of the Middle Ages and concludes that (A. H. R. XVIII, 4 pp. 712-726) as a historical period this is a relatively recent borrowing from the philologist who used the term to describe a period of non-classical Latin. Professor Burr says that "such a period, even if

justified, can be so only for Christendom—only, perhaps, for Latin Christendom—and, even, for Latin Christendom, it is but a single phase (philologic) of the infinitely complex life of man. . . . (We might note here that the philologist has invented many myths for the historian; including the Aryan Race) in history our periods, if they are to be intelligible must overlap. All hail! to those who save our thought from petrification by coining us fresh nomenclature from ever varying points of view." It is indeed refreshing to find Russell, "Soul of England," 1915, admitting that "Modern history begins with the French Revolution."

So, too have periods changed in the past. Hesiod finds five: (1) gold, (2) silver, (3) bronze, (4) heroic and (5) iron. Lucretius makes three: (1) stone, (2) bronze and (3) iron. Varro gives three: (1) to the deluge, (2) a mythical age to the first olympiad and (3) finally, the historic age. Auguste Comte would have three: (1) the supernatural, (2) the metaphysical and (3) the positive (scientific).

What must we think of authors who like Symonds³ and Christopher Hale⁴ lay out an age as definitely as they do the Renaissance as a period from 1456 to 1527 or from 1470 to 1530 respectively?

It is well to examine carefully so as not to be led astray by such alluring phrases as the Augustan Age, Age of Pericles, Age of Elizabeth, Victorian Age, Dark Ages, Age of Steam, or Age of the Crusades. Why not take them as skeptically as we take G. B. Shaw's "Age of George Bernard Shaw."

How long have we possessed an Age of Pericles? Thucydides did not know of such. Research will not carry it very far back in history. Have you ever stopped to think how much harm that phrase is doing in our schools, how it perverts a correct perspective of that period? It concentrates attention on Athens, by no means the only and possibly not the greatest of the city-states of Greece. It does honor to the destroyer rather than a creator of Athenian greatness. It pictures a citified Greece for a country of bucolic farmers. It crowds out of sight the really great history of tolerant Persia, where feudalism and home rule for the satrapies was then being worked out. It glorifies militarism at the expense of peace. It obscures the contemporary works of Ezra and Nehemiah and the re-organization of Judaism under the tolerance of the Persians. So with all age classifications. If we use this method as a device, at least let us know what we are doing and act with extreme caution.

Philosophic interpretations of history are but colossal exaggerations of the sequential form. Evolution deifies sequence; it is merely another name for sequence. Furthermore, inasmuch as whatever survives is necessarily fitter than what perishes, sequence becomes the greatest of philosophic tyrants. At last some are daring enough to question the philosophy of

² Cf. Henry Fairfield Osborn, "Men of the Old Stone Age," 1915; and Sollar, "Ancient Hunters."

³ Article on "Renaissance," in eleventh edition of "Encyclopædia Britannica."

⁴ "Life and Letters in the Italian Renaissance," 1915.

the survival of the fittest. Perhaps mutual aid and co-operation are as potent. It should be our business as historians to guard against all philosophies of history, or at least against any one particular hobby.

One of the worst of these is the economic interpretation of history. The philosophy of this was set forth by Karl Marx and Frederick Engels in "The Communist Manifesto" (1847). Theirs was the theory rather than a historical work. Buckle, "History of Civilization in England," (1857), gave us our first really materialistic history. He worked out the influences of the material world upon the foundations of English society. His was the most ambitious attempt to appraise human doings yet undertaken. The Aryan Hindoo was intellectual because he ate rice. *Der Mensch ist, was er isst*; nurture not nature. "It is absurd," Buckle asserted, "it would be a mockery of all sound reasoning to ascribe to legislation any share in the progress of civilization; or to expect any benefit from any future legislators except that sort of benefit which consists in undoing the work of their predecessors." For Buckle, Adam Smith by writing his "Wealth of Nations" made a greater contribution to the happiness of mankind (happiness from *laissez-faire*!) than has been effected by the united abilities of all the statesmen and legislators of whom history has preserved an authentic record. "For all the higher purposes of human thought, history is still miserably deficient, and presents that confused and anarchical appearance natural to a subject of which the laws are unknown and even the foundations unsettled." Buckle "hoped to accomplish for the history of man something equivalent, or at all events analogous, to what has been effected by other inquirers for the different branches of natural science. In regard to nature, events apparently the most irregular and capricious have been explained, and have been shown to be in accordance with certain fixed and universal laws. This has been done because men of ability, and, above all, patient untiring thought, have studied natural events with the view of discovering their regularity; and if human events were subjected to a similar treatment, we have every right to expect similar results." Historians were from "natural incapacity" or "indolence of thought" prevented from giving more than an annalistic record of events.

How this want has been remedied since Buckle's day! Renan has found that the desert is monotheistic; Simkhovitch, that society is based on hay; Jones reinstates the mosquito in Greek and Roman history; Lamprecht (*Kulturgeschichte*) and Shotwell (A. H. R., vol. xviii, No. 4) claim that history follows certain socio-psychological laws, which the psychologist has yet to discover (or invent?). Turner proves that the frontier has determined American history so far. Gilbert Slater knows that English history is determined by the Land Question. Professor Giddings has taken the old wives' house proverb, "Birds of a feather flock together," and made it into a universal explanation of society under a more euphonious title, "Consciousness of Kind."

It may be easy to follow the economic historian

when he tells us that past historians have ignored the great part played by economic forces, and that descriptions and explanations have been correspondingly superficial. When one reflects that the great problems of the present day are those attending economic reorganization, one might even take the doctrine as a half-hearted confession that historians are really engaged in constructing the past in terms of the problems and interests of an impending future. But no, our strictly economic interpreter (out-Marx-ing Marx) will have it that economic forces present an inevitable evolution, of which State and Church, art and literature, science and philosophy, are by-products. It is useless to suggest that, while modern industry has given an immense stimulus to scientific inquiry, yet nevertheless the industrial revolution of the eighteenth century comes after the scientific revolution of the seventeenth. The dogma forbids any connection. Marx's materialistic interpretation of history is to march progressively to a cataclysm of the conflict of classes—another Hegelian philosophy of history of the progressive-sequential sort. One of the problems of the historian of to-day is to break down the internationalism (universality) which is so large a part of the teachings of Marx.

Equally misleading and probably more disastrous in its consequences is the pseudo-scientific *race* interpretation of history which has grown up within the last century. Following the philosophers Fichte and Hegel who gave a super-religious and scientific sanction to a thing of which they themselves were wholly ignorant, anthropologists and ethnologists have been trying to find some evidences on which to hang a race classification. The lack of such a scientific basis has not given pause to historians. They, indeed, have gone piling up universal divine mission for their respective races until the results would be ridiculous were they not so tragic. Mommsen, Bernhardt, and Chamberlain find in history a divine mission, universal in its scope, for the imposition of Teutonism. Chamberlain says: "Teutonic blood alone created a new civilization." "The less Teutonic a land is, the more uncivilized it is." Teutons are characterized by a power of expansion possessed by no race before them. "From the earliest times down to the present day we see the Teutons, to make room for themselves, slaughtering whole tribes and races, or slowly killing them by systematic demoralization . . . one must admit that in the very places where they were most cruel—as for instance, the Anglo-Saxons in England, the German Order in Prussia, the French and English in North America—they laid by this very means the surest foundation of what is highest and most moral." Such arguments created a Pan-German movement. The goal of historical evolution is to be Germanic Institution!

Other peoples have followed the lead of Fichte and Hegel. There is a Pan-Anglism movement. Professor Cramb in his "Origins and Destiny of Imperial Britain" says: "If I were asked how one could describe in a sentence the general aim of British imperialism . . . I should answer . . . to give all men

within its borders an English mind; to give all who come within its sway the power to look at the things of man's life, at the past, at the future, from the standpoint of an Englishman; to diffuse within its bounds that high tolerance in religion which has marked this Empire from its foundation; that reverence yet boldness before the mysteriousness of life and death, characteristic of our great poets and our great thinkers; that love of free institutions, that pursuit of ever higher justice and a larger freedom, which, rightly or wrongly, we associate with the temper and character of our race, wherever it is dominant and secure. . . . To give all men within its bounds an English mind—that has been the purpose of our Empire in the past. He who speaks of England's greatness speaks of this. Her renown, her glory, it is this, undying, imperishable, in the strictest sense of that word. For if, in some cataclysm of nature, these islands and all that they embrace were overwhelmed and sunk in sea-oblivion, if to-morrow's sun rose upon an Englandless world, still this spirit and this purpose in other lands would fare on untouched amid the wreck."

Lately we have heard of Pan-Americanism. Coit in his "Soul of America" finds salvation for the world at the hands of the American race. He would have us lay aside all differences of politics and religion to unite in the worship of The American Spirit. DuBois, "The Negro," concludes that the really great elements of our civilization are chiefly of negro origins.

These authors who have striven to set forth Pan-Americanism, Pan-Germanism, Pan-Slavism, Pan-Anglism, are not facetious; they are as serious as their compatriots Beard or Slater. They too err historically in trying to be universal, i.e. philosophic.

Notice that these ideals of historical interpretations are largely of Germanic origins. Taine, the Frenchman, said that all the leading ideas of his day were produced in Germany between 1780 and 1830. The Germans are convinced of this. Their philosopher, Eucken, justifies the part taken by Germany in the world war because the Germans alone do not represent a particularistic and nationalistic spirit, but embody the "Universal" of humanity itself (*Kultur*). Therein, he utters the conviction of Germany that Germany is in a sense alone of all the nations embodying the essential principle of humanity.

Fortunately for humanity Taine's observation is now even less true than at the time of its utterance. All the world does not believe or think in Germanic universals. The United States, long ago (our United States was based upon the ideal of State Rights), and the British Empire, more recently, realized in politics the value of the rights of the individual unit; the truths of many separate ideas. In history a *Staatgeist* is supplanting *Zeitgeist*. Books on smaller political units are multiplying: Russel, "The Spirit of England;" McCabe, "The Spirit of Europe;" Smith, "The Soul of Germany;" Coit, "The Soul of America;" Guard, "The Soul of Paris;" Guard, "The Soul of Italy;" Langford, "The Soul of Japan;"

Hamelins, "The Soul of Belgium;" Studer, "The Soul of France;" Sidney Low, "The Soul of France;" Aladin, "The Soul of Russia." Notice, these titles are geographical, based on concrete, definite, territorial units, not philosophic or ethnic. They reflect a realization of the importance of the individual geographic units in history, i.e. the States.

England recognized this when she granted autonomy to Canada and South Africa, when she granted home-rule to Ireland, and when she began to consider the rights of Wales. You will see the idea reflected in every issue of "The Round Table," "The New Statesman," or "The Nation." The origin and growth of the movement can be studied in Jebb, "Studies in Colonial Nationalism;" Lucas, "A Historical Geography of the British Colonies;" Jose, "History of Australasia;" Mulner, "The Nation and the Empire;" and in the works of Goldwin Smith.

The world is no longer running on glittering formulae; it is thinking in terms of its concrete parts. It is thinking hard and it has learned more about these separate units, i.e., its geography, within the past year and a half than it ever before realized. Not only countries, but each community has its individual characteristics which will steadily refuse to take a general stamp. The Ukraine, Mesopotamia, Armenia, Avlona, Alsace-Lorraine, Varennes, or Salonika, each must be treated as a separate or individual entity.

The present mission of the history teacher is to preach national and communal rights as opposed to the tyranny of universals. We need a narrowly local political history but with the local units visaged in the light of their relations to each other; an international study of related units.

In 1908 Langlois and Seignobos wrote in their "Introduction to the Study of History" (p. 47): "It would be hard to find any good reason, or any fact of experience, to prove that a professor of history, or an historian, is so much the better the more he knows of geology, oceanography, climatology, and the whole group of geographical sciences. In fact, it is with some impatience and to no immediate advantage that students of history work through the courses of geography which their curricula force upon them." This cannot be true to one who is trying to reconstruct a living past.

How patently false it appears in the light of our present historical situation. The general public soon realized that one journalist above all others possessed the ability to turn meagre war despatches into real live history. The reason lay in the fact that Frank Simonds has studied the *terrain* occupied by the contending forces. Admiral A. T. Mahan ("Forces in International Relations") wrote some time before the war: "It is the great amount of unexploited raw material in territories politically backward, and now imperfectly possessed by the nominal owners, which at the present moment constitutes the temptation and the impulse to war of European States." J. Holland Rose ("Origins of the War," p. 188) says: "The enlarged and strengthened areopagus of the nations must and will discuss such questions as the excessive

pressure of population in a state, and it will seek to direct the surplus to waste or ill-cultivated lands. In that more intelligent and peaceful future, Germans will not need to "hack their way through." The fiat of mankind will, I hope, go forth that they shall acquire, if need be, parts of Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, and South Brazil." History, if it is to be of service, must deal with the coal and iron mines of Alsace-Lorraine and Morocco, the petroleum fields of Galicia, the Bagdadbahn, the fruits of Africa, the Vosges Mountains, and the Black Forest; it must show the earth as it is, its resources, its peoples, its religions.

Geographical knowledge (*Erdkunde*) for such a study is at hand. Geographers have worked industriously and scientifically for years. Alexander von Humboldt (1769-1859) began the organization of the chaos of previously observed facts. Carl Ritter (1779-1859) wrote a "Comparative Geography." We have the researches of Wagner, Ratzel and Penck. Elisée Reclus (1830-1905) "*L'homme et la terre*" has related man to his environments. In America we have the works of Davis Huntington, ("The Pulse of Asia" and "Civilization and Climate") and Semple ("The Influence of Geographic Environment").

Geography has broadened its scope since the days of von Humboldt; it has taken as allies, anthropology, geology, archaeology, chemistry, and even history. It has become dynamic; it deals even with man the animal. Some more progressive geography teachers are even now teaching geography from the historical point of view. The older historians scoffed at geography; it was the proud boast of Mommsen that he knew nothing of archaeology and anthropology.

More venturesome historians have already trespassed upon the geographical field with marvelous results. Myres, "Greek Lands and the Greek People" is an epoch marking book for teachers of ancient history. Scarcely less important is Murray, "Lectures on the geography of Greece."

We now can know a great deal more about the Greeks than their historians have told us. Although Athens had to import its foods, Thucydides ignores food supplies and trade routes—he is rather interested in an abstract "virtue" which very closely resembles the *Virtù* of Machiavelli. F. E. Cornford has written a very stimulating book, "Thucydides Mythistoricus;" and Grundy, "Thucydides and His Age," gives us an entirely new light on the position taken by Syracuse and Corinth in the Peloponnesian Wars. Thucydides could not even describe a campaign accurately: he was too ignorant of the topography of Greece. Grundy has also illuminated "The Great Persian War." Zimmern develops an entirely new point of view in his "Greek Commonwealth."

Equally suggestive, when contrasted with a Mommsen or a Meyer, a Livy or a Polybius, is Tenny Frank's "Roman Imperialism." Huntington's theory of a rhythm of climate, "The Pulse of Asia," as an explanation of the migrations of the European peoples (*Völkerwanderung*) has, *mirabile dictu*, found its way

into the "Cambridge Mediaeval History" (vol. 1) as an explanation of the Germanic Invasions. Rostowzew, "Geschichte des Römischen Kolonates," supercedes all earlier works on feudal origins, using as it does the concrete historio-geographical basis rather than a philosophical or a philological. Contrast Rostowzew's method of following land tenure through the various countries, Persia, Egypt, Sicily, Gaul, etc., with the latest highly theoretical and tenuous conjectural method of a Vinogradoff ("Cambridge Mediaeval History," vol. ii, ch. xx.) Vinogradoff finds the origins in kinship. For proof he again cites Tacitus who "speaks of the military array of a tribe . . . composed of families and kindreds (*familiae et propinquitates*)"—two words which might quite as readily be translated "slaves" and "neighbors."

When in 1908 Bryce stated that "Thirty or forty years ago the geographical element in history was practically an untrodden field," his statement was practically true, with certain philosophical exceptions. Herder (1744-1803) had stated that "History is geography set in motion," and Kant (1724-1804) had affirmed that "Geography lies at the basis of all history." But since 1908, as we have noted, some historians have entered the field of geography. It is now time for the history teacher to follow: the geographical element in history must be popularized.

A few rather simple methods will enable the history teacher to adapt her courses to the newer form of history. In the first place history must become a study rather than a story or a sequence. Seely wrote ("The Expansion of England," 1883, pp. 174-175): "For in history everything depends upon turning narrative into problems. So long as you think of history as a mere chronological narrative, so long you are in the old literary groove which leads to no trustworthy knowledge, but only to that pompous conventional romancing of which all serious men are tired. Break the drowsy spell of narrative; ask yourself questions; set yourself problems; become an investigator; you will cease to be solemn and begin to be serious." Lose reverence for philosophic formulae, for chronology and for your texts. Many history teachers consider Mommsen more inspired than their Bible. Remember that every author has a bias and that they all make mistakes of judgment, and even of fact. You may study your French Revolution from the epic pages of a Hugo, a Dickens, or an H. Morse Stephens. If you prefer you may take the philosophic "great-man" theory of a Carlyle, recently repeated in "The Aristocratic Class" work of Madelin. You may follow the Girondists, Taine and Shaler Mathews. Aulard with his disciples, Robinson-Beard, gives you the bourgeoisie interpretation; Jaures and Kropotkin set forth the ideals of the proletariat—Jaures from the socialist point of view, Kropotkin from the anarchist. All are good works on the revolution; combined they show you that the teacher and students still have a problem of selection and judgment. Teach pupils that they too must think over the problems raised.

Assert the "Home-rule" ideal in the teaching of

history. It is time that the history teacher rebelled against the *laying out* of courses. Let your iconoclasm strike at Divine Right College Entrance Boards and Autocratic Courses of Study.

A generation which has read the Wessex novels can appreciate the works of Theocritus. Possibly the Greece of Keats may prove as interesting to students as that of Grote. Arcadia may prove to be more Grecian than the Periclean Age. Substitute Hesiod's "Works and Days" for Thucydides' "Peloponnesian Wars." Read: Homer; Xenophon, "The Economist;" Herodotus, "Daphnis and Chloe;" Aristophanes, "Peace, Birds and Acharnians." Pausanias' eighth book (translated by J. G. Frazer, Macmillan) gives a lot of fascinating lore about Arcadia.

Cato, Varro, Columella, Virgil, and Pliny furnish equally interesting geographical material for Roman history (c.f. translations by "A Virginian Farmer"). Dion of Prusa, also called Chrysostom, the Golden-mouthed, of the time of Titus reminds one of the style of Goldsmith, "The Deserted Village."

Even a text will yield rich fruit if gleaned with a geographic rake.

Break the tyranny of chronology. History courses are usually graded according to chronology; with the newest coming last. You might go backwards. William II has suggested this for the German schools (1890): "Hitherto the road has led from Thermopylae by way of Canae to Rossback and Bienville. I would lead our youths from Sedan and Gravelotte by way of Leuthen and Rossback back to Mantinea and Thermopylae." Such a chronology will become much more real if you work both ways and all ways at the same time. Constant comparison is necessary to make time real.

Such a method has been tried in certain history laboratories where current periodicals furnish the present day element in the course. Listen to what Arnold Bennet ("Your United States," p. 156-157) says of such a course at Columbia University: "I do believe that I even liked the singular sight of a Chinaman tabulating from the world's press, in the modern-history laboratory, a history of the world day by day. I can hardly conceive a wilder, more fearfully difficult way of trying to acquire the historical sense than this voyaging through hot, fresh newspapers, nor one more probably destined to failure [I should have liked him to see some of the two-monthly résumés which students in this course are obliged to write]; but I liked the enterprise and the originality and the daring of the idea; I liked the disdain of tradition. And, after all, is it weirder than the common traditional method?" "I should doubt whether at Harvard modern history is studied through the daily paper—unless perchance it be in Harvard's own daily paper."

Visualize your history. What more is the Gary Plan! There are excellent albums such as Lavissee and Parmentier, "Album historique" (4 vols); and Perrot and Chipiez, "History of Art." Stereoscopic magic lantern slides are easily accessible. Arnold Bennett visited such a lesson and reports: "I saw

geography being taught with the aid of a stereoscopic magic-lantern. After a view of the high street of a village in North Russia had been exposed and explained by a pupil, the teacher said, 'If anybody has any questions to ask, let him stand up.' And the whole class leaped furiously to its feet, blotting out the entire picture with black shadows of craniums and starched pinafores. The whole class might have been famished." Geographical magazines are apt to be of more service than historical ones for the purposes of making history vivid.

Incorporate geography into the history. Usually the text gives a chapter on the geography of a country and then goes off and straightway proceeds to forget that there ever was such a thing as the geography of that particular country. An excellent example of what may be achieved in this line is contained in a recent work of Professor Breasted in his chapter on Egypt in Robinson and Breasted's "Outlines of European History" (vol 1, pp. 17-54). As you voyage up the Nile, the Delta gives you the Old Kingdom with its pyramids and Cairo; the cliff region gives you the Middle Kingdom with its feudalism and feudal nobility; while Thebes stands for the Empire with its splendor and its commerce.

Historical geography should form a constant part of every history course. It corrects conceptions of the Grecian world to learn the extent of geographical knowledge possessed by the present Ionian Greeks. Herodotus knew that Egypt was the Gift of the Nile, that the Ethiopians were black with the heat; he tells of the Ganges, the Sahara, the Niger, of pygmies, crocodiles, and the land of the midnight sun and the hyperboreans. He also had made use of the maps, *Periodoi Gês*, of the Ionians. He complains that 'he had to laugh when he saw them' and so he would construct one of his own. For an interesting article on this line consult J. L. Myres, "Maps used by Herodotus" in the "Geographical Journal," 1896, pp. 605 ff., and his lecture on Herodotus in "Anthropology and the Classics," also Tozer's "History of Ancient Geography." Many students and perhaps some teachers do not realize that the Persia of today is in many ways the Persia of Xerxes; or that Greece, Egypt and Asia Minor have always continued to exist. You cannot teach the English charters to her American colonies properly without seventeenth century maps. Acquire old prints; they form one of the most interesting ways of teaching the former history of such units as Paris, London, Petrograd, New York or Washington.

Schools should possess maps of more varieties. They should be topographical, chorographical, political, physical, geological, orographical, hydrographical, meteorological, ethnological, travel maps, statistical maps, etc., etc. Usually maps are left in the realm of mystery and blind faith; they must be made real to pupils. Black lines are not invading Germans or adventuresome explorers. These lines terminate at just the most interesting point: explorers never get beyond a coast line. To many a student maps do not even convey an impression of direction.

Many a student is in much the muddle of Strepsidas of Aristophanes' "Clouds." Strepsidas was admiring Socrates' academy. When he was told that a certain spot on a *Periodos Gēs* was Athens, he said: "I don't believe it, I don't see the jury courts sitting." Then he asked, "Where is Sparta?" It was indicated. "So near!" said Strepsidas, "You should apply your whole mind to the problem of removing it quite a long distance away from us." "But that is impossible." "Very well, you'll regret it, that's all."

Sporadic attempts at map construction generally degenerate into mere memory reproductions of dots and dashes. The ordinary historical atlas furnishes basis for little else.

A chief cause for the failure of historical geography is the lack of imagination on the part of those in authority: the College Entrance Board is one of the worst offenders in this respect. All that they ever require in the line of geographical knowledge is reproduction on an outline furnished of certain dots and dashes above mentioned. Why not introduce questions of the following type. "Show the part played by Kent in English history." (Surely Kent is just as important and quite as definite historically as Becket or Tyler or Cade.) "What does Germany

want in Morocco?" "What is the economic importance of Lorraine?" "What is its historical importance?" "Who are its chief heroes?" "What part did Sicily play in Roman history?" "Contrast Corinthian and Arcadian institutions." "Describe Florence in the time of Savonarola." "Describe Paris in the thirteenth century." "Describe Avignon in the fourteenth century." "How has Hartford, Connecticut, figured in American history?" "What is the significance of Quebec in Canadian history?" "What was included in the Norman Empire?" "Name its chief cities." "Name ten Norman heroes."

Kipling writes: "Who can England know, who only England knows?" We might paraphrase this to read, "Who can English history teach, who doesn't England know?" York, Kent, Salisbury, Lincoln, Essex, Wessex, Northumbria, and the Lake Region each has as much individuality and as great historical importance as Cromwell, Moore, Bright, Bede, Anselm, or George III. Perhaps our best history teachers after all are such writers as Thomas Hardy, Arnold Bennett, or Eden Philpotts with their faithful expositions of Wessex, the Five-towns of Lancashire, or the slate regions of Cornwall.

Economics in the High School¹

BY PRESIDENT CHEESMAN A. HERRICK, GIRARD COLLEGE.

Political economy was long regarded as the "dismal science." An acquaintance of mine once likened it to a man in a room looking out into a dark night for a black man who isn't there. Those in other fields of specialization and practical men have alike looked askance at political economy. But for the earlier discredited and threadbare subject political economy, there has in late years come into use a new term, economics, which carries with it a different connotation and which commands a new interest. The term political economy originated from an effort on the part of governments to get the largest revenue for States with the least inconvenience to their peoples, and it was long used to mean "the housekeeping of the nation." As thus conceived, political economy was of keen interest to publicists, but it made little appeal to others.

In the early period of its development, political economy took form as a body of doctrinaire theory, far removed from the every-day interest of the man of the world. This method led John Morley to ask a generation ago why it was that a study of society was the one place where a man of genius was free to "assume all his major premises" and "swear all his conclusions." It was perhaps natural that the period of Rousseau, Jefferson and Paine, with its highly idealistic notions of the political state and of the political man should have led to the conception of an

economic society, and the fiction of an "economic man."

We now know that much of the early work in political economy was not wholly bad or useless, although in itself it had little value and at best it was an incomplete work. But without these early theoretical studies much of the later practical work would have been impossible. However, one who has done a little work in this field is well aware that theories are often at variance with conditions, and practical men were not slow to consign such a subject to the limbo of things useless if not dangerous. Other well-meaning persons have done further violence to political economy by using it as a form of rainbow chasing, while still others sought to make of it a "spring-board" which would "land men in Utopia."

The newer and more correct notion of this branch of social science, is conveyed by "economics," which has come to mean a wide range of descriptive, historical and theoretical studies on the phenomena of our present industrial and commercial order. Economics, in a broad sense, is the science of wealth, dealing with its production, distribution, exchange and consumption. The study may well be defined as a *science of business*, and men who do business in any sphere are consciously or unconsciously employing economics, just as one who navigates a ship uses astronomy, an engineer uses physics, or a manufacturer uses chemistry. Men in all callings will be more efficient from a training in the sciences which are fundamental to their callings, and as all men have to

¹ Paper read before Department of Business Education, N. E. A., New York, July 6, 1916.

deal with business affairs, they will be better equipped from a study of economics.

Economics, as thus conceived, is not narrowly the science of getting money, but broadly it is the science of welfare and it is of supreme interest to the individual, the family, the State, and the world at large. Fundamentally economics is the science which shows how individuals, and associations of individuals, can provide their necessary food, clothing and shelter, and whatever else is deemed a proper part of their life.

It will readily be seen that economics is an art and a science. Every person must practice it as an art, and the suggestion is here made that similarly all should study it as a science. Men can scarcely escape some form of economic practice; in all walks and callings they must guide their activities by calculations of supply and demand; they must deal with investments and securities, and reckon on incomes and expenditures. People should be more largely interested in what has been well termed, "the backward art of spending money." It should be obvious, though it seems to be little understood, that skill, wisdom and discernment in the consumption of wealth are quite as important to the individual as is his added income, through increased producing power.

As a science, economics offers an educational instrument of first importance. The study is largely informational and it gives information which appeals to those of varying ages and diverse attainments. But more than this, the study is a universalizing or generalizing one which will give valuable lessons in dealing with details and reducing these to a system. From this last aspect of the subject it becomes of large significance to our systems of education. Economic phenomena have so multiplied, and they claim so large a place in present thought that the ability to handle these phenomena and to reduce them to an orderly system is a highly desirable if not a necessary element in present education. Economics properly conceived is a statement of the principles which are fundamental to social life. There is a grave present necessity for co-ordinating and applying the great body of social knowledge. Economics as a science seeks to accomplish this.

In determining the worth of economics, we should first consider its value to the individual. In brief this subject teaches men to care for themselves and those directly dependent on them. Economics deals with such fundamentals as returns from labor, employment of capital in profitable production, and investments of savings. If the study did no more than lead men to make provision for their own more distant future, it would be well worth a place in schools which prepare for life. Too often men act like children or savages sacrificing the future larger good for a present slight pleasure. Economics teaches the lesson to the individual of living for the better time to come. The habits which pupils form during their school lives are likely to have large influence on their later experiences. The possibility and the wisdom of small savings, and knowledge of the meaning of savings banks and building and loan associations should be a

part of the preparation for complete living. Those trained to understand the meaning of savings will understand that a limited amount set aside each year, not only gives immediate pleasure, but affords a guarantee for future safety.

But this provision for the future goes further than one's saving to protect himself. It teaches that duty which every one owes to posterity to preserve and perpetuate the material blessings with which he has been endowed, so that each generation may rise to a higher plane of living than would be possible if each generation attempted to live for itself alone.

Economics should teach in the next place that the range of occupations commonly termed business are of real service to society, and from its study the business man can be made to feel the responsibility for a larger circle than his immediate family. This branch of knowledge will show that those who are in legitimate forms of business are helping to feed, clothe and shelter their fellows, and thus business will be given its true place in the list of occupations.

The study of economics will make clear, as pointed out by Bishop Newman, that it is no more a sin to make money if men aid their fellows in so doing, than it is to seek honor by similarly attempting to aid their fellows. Such a point of view will give a new notion of success, and it will be found that success is not limited to a few chosen occupations and that, in the best sense of the word, large numbers can succeed. Thus, and only thus, can men who are in the commercial and industrial callings be given a professional attitude toward their work.

Economics will in the next place furnish a largeness of view by which men can recognize the rights of others and see the interdependence of all the factors in the modern industrial system. Class distinctions are the most baneful influence of the present age. Landlords against tenants, employers against employed, capital class against debtors, and other antagonisms threaten the safety of society. Ignorance and self-interest have led to a partial and prejudiced view on these questions and too largely the condition of our economic system is that of a primitive society in which every man's hand is against his fellow and his fellow's hand is against him. Economics teaches, unmistakably, that labor and capital are not enemies, but friends, and a proper understanding of its lessons will lead the capitalist to ask not "how little," but "how much can I pay my laborers" and similarly will lead the laborers to ask, not "how little," but "how much can we do for our employer." One half of the ills of our social system would be cured if men could be led to view their fancied differences from the point of view of those whom they are opposing.

The most hopeless philosophy of life which has been enunciated in recent years was that of a millionaire's son, who was reported as saying, that perhaps hundreds of common roses, had to be destroyed in order to grow one American beauty, and he applied this reasoning to his conception of success. Success of this sort, or at this price, is the most dismal failure. Those in the schools now are to be the em-

ployers or the employed of the immediate future, and they need the training that will give a broad view of their rights and obligations. Men should be led to a recognition of the fact that how money is secured is important, and that its real worth after it has been secured is the way it is used. But there is a larger view of this matter with which the schools should be vitally concerned, which is the preparation for what may be denominated an economic citizenship. Modern society is going through a sort of economic revolution, not unlike the intellectual revolution of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries known as the Renaissance, and the religious Reformation of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Nicholas Murray Butler well says that the first question which should be asked of any course of study is, "Does it lead to a knowledge of our contemporary civilization?", and he goes on to say, that if it does not it is "neither efficient nor liberal." When the right of suffrage had been extended to the common people in England, a great statesman remarked, "Now we must educate our masters." It is not sufficient that leaders only be intelligent on the troublesome questions of public policy. Ours is a government of public opinion, and in the minds of the people in last analysis is found the true stability of governmental institutions. John Morley says that to bid a man do his duty, and then to forbid him to study economic questions, utilitarianism, and kindred subjects which are the means of determining what his duty is, is but "bald and naked counsel."

Andrew D. White, long since made the observation, that man is an economic animal as well as a political animal, that he is born into an industrial system, just as surely as he is born into a political state. In an enumeration of the ideals for a course of study, President Butler once put as fundamental, the statement, "the dominant note of our society is economic." In a larger sense, political questions, state's rights, individual liberty, constitutional privilege, etc., have been settled and the alignment of parties is now on economic questions, such as government ownership of public utilities, and the regulation of insurance. Momentous consequences are bound up with our economic citizenship. The present great pressing questions of public policy on which voters are asked to pass, are tariffs, monetary reforms, banking systems, regulation of railroads, governmental supervision over combinations of capital, and the like, and if the citizen of the present and the future is to give a safe answer to these questions he must have training in the fundamentals of the science of which they are an expression.

"Money mania" and "dollarhood" are terms more apt than one could wish in description of our present social standards. The United States should be something vastly better than the "land of the almighty dollar." Life in this country should not be permitted to degenerate into a mad race for wealth, and the standard of success should never be the amount of money which one can accumulate. Of our

own country we can say, as Goldsmith said of his "Sweet Auburn!"

"Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay."

We are in greatest danger from the failure to regard the gravity of present problems. In health, one is likely to disregard the laws of health, and in the bountiful prosperity and seeming security of our economic system we are in danger of disregarding the basal principles for the well-being of society. This is all the more seductive in America, because our prosperity has largely come from rich endowment in natural resources and the fortunate conditions under which we have lived.

The conservatism of the schools is well noted by President Butler who says, "It is a constant fight to get any proper teaching from an economic point of view," a statement which he held true of both schools and colleges. Those who are deemed mature enough to handle the intricacies of foreign languages, or to study the abstruse principles of higher mathematics, are thought by educators too immature for any economic study. Economics is held to be speculative and impractical. It often seems that school-masters seek to isolate those whom they train from the present world and to "orient" them instead to an earlier age. It would appear the part of wisdom, that through economics the schools should be brought into the closest relations with the economic society in which they exist, and should use the data of this society as a means of training.

The report of the Committee of Ten in the section on History and Social Science, recommended for the incidental study of political economy in connection with history. According to that report, history was to be what has been termed a "stalking horse" for both economics and civics, these subjects being treated as sort of "poor relatives" of the more exalted subject of history instead of being recognized as subjects in their own rights. The statement of the Committee of Ten, that there were no suitable text-books, is far less true now than when it was made, and similarly the further statement that schools could not procure efficient teachers for political economy is hardly true of the present.

It is probable that economics can be considered with profit as an incidental subject in grammar schools, and in the earlier high school years. It may also be introduced as a part of the general exercises of the school and in more popular form as lectures. The subject, however, is altogether too important to be left wholly to any hap-hazard treatment. In the third or fourth high school year students are sufficiently mature and so grounded in history and acquainted with the world, that they may safely be asked to undertake this subject.

The text-book and the topical methods have been variously recommended. Following the text-book exclusively may lead to the notion that economics is a matter of the book and not of the world which is all about the students. The topical method alone is in

danger of being vague and indefinite. To escape from the disabilities of either of these methods there may be recommended the use of the text-book to give unity and continuity to the study, and a generous following of topics, supplementary to the book. Economics may well begin as a practical and descriptive subject through the use of topics dealing with the local community.

A few years ago President James suggested a syllabus of economics and social science for the use of both elementary and secondary schools. Such a syllabus would serve as a guide to teachers, indicating topics to be studied, and their order, treatment, and relations to other subjects, also methods of study and the like. A syllabus which cannot fail to be of great service, has been worked out by the faculty of political economy of the University of Chicago. Many manuals of the sort here indicated are already available for English, mathematics, geography, science, etc., covering both subject matter and methods of instruction, and no doubt others will be produced for economics.

There are three divisions of economics, or three methods of treatment. The first is inductive, concrete, descriptive, based on the observation of the student, and an accumulation of familiar industrial and commercial facts. In this aspect of the subject, the study should conform to the principle, *not words, but things*. It is this method of approach which will give economics a point of contact with the world outside of school. The most natural approach to economics is in a study of the place and meaning of industrial and commercial employments in modern social life. Secondly, there should come a study of the more general laws and principles which make up the body of doctrine ordinarily passing as theoretical economics. This should naturally follow the introductory study suggested above, and may well be based on a text-book. This method is necessary in order to give unity and cohesion to the introductory studies. Third, there should be forms of applied economics along such lines of study as transportation, insurance, money, banking and regulation of business.

The first of the three methods suggested above may very well take the form of the study of the local community, its manufacturers, and commercial operations. It can profitably be introduced into the early high school years, and may at once give valuable information on the community which the school serves, and the materials which afterwards can be used in the more formal course in economics. The study of more general aspects of the subject may well come in the third year while the fourth year may be reserved for applied economics along the lines indicated. Whatever the course in school, whether long or short, or whatever the type of school, it appears desirable that the three elements above mentioned should be involved in the study of economics, so that those being trained in the schools may have the information and point of view which will enable them to understand and serve their own community. It should be said further that the study of economics is more largely

a matter of interpretation and spirit of other subjects than it is of the introduction of new subjects into the curriculum. But at least one independent course in economics seems necessary.

Since the publication of the Committee of Ten report in 1893, when only one-twentieth of the schools replying gave instruction in political economy, there has been a marked change. Haynes in his recent book on *Economics in the Secondary School*, reports that he had access to records of some eighteen hundred representative high schools, and found that economics was included in one out of five of these schools.

In 1912 as shown by the Kingsley report, out of two hundred and three colleges reporting, fifty-seven allowed economics to count for one or more units towards the entrance requirements for the bachelor's degree, and thirty-five allowed it to count as one-half a unit. This is but the beginning of a tendency which we believe will result in a general recognition by the colleges, that economics is one of the subjects which the schools should teach and that they should be permitted to offer it for admission to college.

In an article on "Austro-German Commerce in Our Colonies" (July "Revue Politique et Parlementaire"), Deputy Perreau-Pradier gives many statistics to show the decrease in imported products in the various French colonies heretofore largely dependent on the Teutonic countries for manufactured goods. Despite the necessity for rigid economy, doubtless a strong factor in causing such a decrease, he states that the increasing ability of the colonists to supply their own demands, is largely responsible for the change in the economic situation.

WHEN THEY WERE BOYS.

"The Western Teacher" prints the following list of inventions showing the progress in discovery during the nineteenth century:

When your father was a boy none of these things were known:

Aeroplanes, air brakes, antiseptics, automobiles, asphalt paving, acetylene, asbestos, block signals, ball bearings, Bertillon system, canning factories, color photography, carpet sweepers, cash registers, dictagraphs, electric lights, electric bells, electric heating, fireless cookers, gas engines, gas mantles, gasoline, hydroplanes, ice factories, industrial education, liquid air, motorcycles, motion pictures, parcel post, phonographs, pianolas, pneumatic tires, paper towels, radium, re-enforced concrete, submarines, steel construction, smokeless powder, sanitary drinking fountains, typesetting machines, vacuum bottles, wireless telegraphy, wireless telephony, X-rays.

When your grandfather was a boy none of the following were known:

Aluminum, anesthetics, baseball, bicycles, breech loading guns, fountain pens, harvesters, knitting machines, photographs, sewing machines, silos, soda fountains, sleeping cars, telephones, turbines, Yale locks.

When your great-grandfather was a boy none of the following were known:

Canned fruit, cartridges, cook stoves, laundries, matches, postage stamps, railroads, rubber goods, the telegraph, washing machines.

The History of American Life—An Experiment in a New Type of College Course

BY PROFESSOR K. S. LATOURETTE, REED COLLEGE, PORTLAND, OREGON.

All of us remember well the developments in the content of history courses since we first began school. We recall our introduction to American history, when the text was chiefly interested in military campaigns. Presidential campaigns, constitutional developments and territorial expansion were evidently regarded as a kind of necessary interlude to be gotten through as quickly as possible. We could map Washington's movements from the siege of Boston to the surrender at Yorktown. We were carefully drilled in the movements of the armies of the North and the South, and could tell the details of Antietam or Gettysburg or Bull Run. The names of generals were to us far more important than those of such presidents as were unfortunate enough not to have had military records. Of the significance of the constitutional convention we knew little, and of Marshall's decisions still less. For us history ended at Appomattox, or at best the years after it were a kind of postlude in which the monotony of presidential campaigns was broken only by the one interesting incident of the Spanish war.

Then when we found ourselves in high school or college a new kind of history course met us. No longer were battles and military campaigns the chief interest, but a knowledge of politics and constitutional development became the goal. History was past politics and we knew the ins and outs of party struggles, platforms and constitutional theories. We talked familiarly of presidents and would-be presidents, but knew little or nothing about railroad builders, or great merchants, or the growth of the public schools, or of the development of our great religious bodies.

For the past several years we have been rather reluctantly admitting that even politics and constitution making are not the sum total of history. Economic historians have arisen and forced upon us the consideration of their version of the story. The sociologist and the geographer have insisted that they have some things to add. Rather half-heartedly they have been granted recognition. The narrative of political development is now broken occasionally to interlard a chapter on social, religious, economic, and literary developments. It is added rather apologetically, without any apparent organic connection with story, and only as a pleasant intermission. Some works on American history, conscious of their limitations, warn the reader by the title, "A Political History of the United States" that these newer phases are not to be handled. Some daring ones have sought to incorporate in texts and in courses these extra-political and extra-military activities of the nation as part of the organic whole. Even here, however, the political action still occupies the center of the stage. Economic and "social" developments are brought in

merely to shed more light on the political story. History is still chiefly past politics, and other sides of the nation's activity, despairing of receiving equal recognition, are still studied under separate labels as economic history, the history of American literature, or the history of education in the United States.

We are all of us realizing, as many have for some time before us, that our history courses to be complete should tell the whole story, that they should give a complete, well-rounded picture of the life of each age without undue emphasis upon any one side of it, whether it be military, political, economic, or religious. Leaders in our profession have given us successively in addresses from the president's chair of the American Historical Association, their convictions on the scope of our work and most of them have pointed out that it must be broadened. Most of us recognize the need of a change in history as it is now taught, but the difficulties in the way are discouraging. We have only a certain time in which to cram a knowledge of their country's history into students' heads. We already have difficulty in finding time enough to give them what seems to us an adequate knowledge of the political field. How can we hope to do more than to make an occasional excursion into these other fields? Moreover, there are few if any texts available in which the political and military do not predominate. Worse still, for in colleges and even high schools we are not necessarily bound to texts, reference material is often lacking. Economic historians have mapped out their field for us, and there are works on such topics as immigration, the history of education and the history of literature. But there are still great gaps. We look in vain for an adequate study of our religious history, or of the history of American thought.

In spite of difficulties, however, the author has been experimenting the past year in a course which for want of a better title he has called "History of American Life." At the beginning of the year the questions were asked: What are the chief features of American life of to-day? What are the chief interests of the American people? This involved a brief study of contemporary America and resulted in a classification under five general heads. (1) Economic. The nation is certainly interested in making a living and in all that goes with it. Some would even have us believe that money is our chief interest. (2) Political. We are all of us evidently interested in the State, and its activities vitally affect each of us. (3) Religious. In spite of seeming tendencies to pay less attention to religion than at some other times in our history, it is still one of the most prominent features of our life. (4) Educational, literary and artistic.

We are concerned with education. The school, the book, the newspaper, are all prominent in our thinking. We even confess to an interest in music, art and architecture. (5) Social. This is a convenient title under which in these days we put all group activities which we find it difficult to classify elsewhere, often oblivious of the fact that the activities under the other four heads could for the most part lay just claims to the same title.

Given these five divisions, the ideal method would have been to have pictured life under them in each period of our history, with due regard to the fact that it was life, that one must consider it not only in cross sections but longitudinally, that we must show it as something constantly expanding and developing, preserving continuity with the past, but never quite the same in two successive years. Limits of time, however, did not permit this. The attempt was made instead to sketch very briefly the history of each epoch, pointing out the more prominent and important contributions to the America of to-day. Since a choice was necessary, it seemed wiser to have in mind as the distinct aim of the course the understanding of contemporary life. If one can point out period by period the contributions which are important in present day life, one puts students in a fair way to understand the world in which they live; for life to-day is, of course, the product of two factors, heredity, the contribution of the past, and environment, the molding influence of the present. The colonial period, the period of the Revolution, the period of the formation of the Constitution, the period ending in 1815, the years from 1815 to 1860, the Civil War, Reconstruction, and the period since Reconstruction were each taken up in turn. Each was considered under the five heads outlined above, the developments under these were sketched

and the main contributions to the present were pointed out. With this end in view, less time was manifestly spent on the earlier periods and more on the recent ones. Manifestly, too, in different periods different ones of the five main divisions claimed special attention. The period of the formation of the Constitution, by its very title seems from the standpoint of its influence on the present chiefly political in its importance; that since Reconstruction is chiefly economic and social. The class was not large and for purposes of experimentation was confined to those who had previously had a course in American history, either in high school or college. Manifestly no text could be found to cover the work of the course and the chief dependence was on lectures, papers on special topics by members of the class, and class discussions. One of the better recent series of texts was used, however, partly to insure some permanent results of the course remaining in the minds of the class. If lectures and discussions and special papers were to fail, a good text might be something solid in the midst of chaos. The course was, as is the case with most courses, not entirely successful. It had its rough edges and its weak points, but the conviction grows that these were due to the teacher rather than to essential weaknesses in the plan. The class was enthusiastic, and the experiment was sufficiently successful to warrant its repetition another year. A syllabus for it may later be printed. We are convinced that we are on the right track, and this brief description is given in the hope that it may prove suggestive to the many others who are working, many of them much more ably, along the same lines. We covet suggestions and criticisms, and information of similar attempts elsewhere.

Industrial History in the Standard High School Course

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The demand for additions to the heavily burdened history course presents many difficulties to those in charge of high school curricula. Not the least of the trouble comes from the growing call for more industrial history. In college and university work the situation is met and the pressure relieved by the creation of new electives to which those desiring to broaden or specialize their historical knowledge may be admitted. In the high school, on the other hand, the time limit for historical studies is fixed. In few schools, indeed, can the teacher hope to carry his students through more courses than those recommended by the Committee of Seven or the Committee of Five—often he must be content with less. The tendency to reduce history in the high school to a three—or two—year maximum and required history to two years or even one year is quite marked.

In spite of the agitation of some enthusiasts it does not seem wise to substitute, for any of the standard courses, special courses in industrial history. In the

first place it seems more than doubtful if such courses would be as effective in preparation for citizenship as the more general courses, taught with a broad and sympathetic view. Can we afford to sacrifice the intelligent understanding of our present day political and social institutions that comes only from this broader training? In the second place, industrial history presents certain practical difficulties in the teaching. The history of industries has not the unity of time and place, the apparent orderly development, which national history seeks to portray. As a people we are never so united or so uniform in development as our political action might indicate. From natural and abiding causes this differentiation between sections and groups always has existed and will exist for a long time to come. Chronology, stirring event and outstanding personality play a far less striking part in the story of industrial advance than in the usually accepted accounts of national development. For this very reason industrial history does not adapt itself

readily to simple outlines or texts, or to the capacity of untrained students. Careful observation of several hundred college students in American industrial history has shown that it is the exceptional student who can master such a special course without previous training in general American history. Even this exceptional student must fortify himself by much reading of texts and manuals in an effort to orient himself. The difficulties of time and space—of perspective—are great even where the students have had some historical training. How much truer this would be in the high school we can only conjecture. In spite of criticism, the standard courses do furnish the student with the semblance of an orderly development, with events and chronology enough for a clear outline and the fixing of a few things in the memory.

With far the larger number of teachers and schools the problem of teaching industrial history in the high schools, if it is to be taught at all—and there will be few to say it should not be—is a problem of weaving the story of economic and industrial progress into the regular, standard history course. How to accomplish this in such a way as to do it reasonable justice and at the same time refrain from crowding out other equally important things, and preserve the unity and clarity of the course is the task of the teacher.

It is not necessary to work any great upheaval in the course in order to give the student some idea of industrial history. Something must be added to the content, but careful reorganization will give the industrial side of history its due prominence without overloading the course or destroying its unity or "teachability"—indeed, the results will be quite the opposite. The principal change needed is in the viewpoint or angle from which the events of history shall be studied. The same outline or course can be followed and much of the same material used, but the events will be explained in the light of their industrial and economic causes and effects. It will often be merely a shifting of emphasis.

The artificial introduction from time to time of chapters or assigned lessons purporting to bring the story of industrial development down to date is unsatisfactory. It interrupts the story of history and moreover fails to show the vital connection between industrial, social and political developments. For this reason some recent texts which have attempted to meet the demand by the interpolation or forced introduction of short perfunctory chapters on industry will not do. There are indications that we are to have text-books of clearly defined and orderly outlines including a fair view of the industrial side of history, but until they become more plentiful than at present the teacher must work with the texts and outlines at hand. After all, this is not so bad as it seems, for, unless the teacher knows or can learn enough of industrial history to make this adjustment, his teaching of it would be of questionable value, and, further, there is some reason to believe that these conservative texts may act as a proper balance to the untempered zeal of the enthusiast, and aid in bringing about a just and abiding result.

As each new event or great character in history comes to light in the development of the course, the teacher should at once raise the question of the reason for the event or the stand which the individual has taken upon public questions. Sometimes the question should be raised before the events themselves are reached. At once the road is open for the introductory story of the industrial and social background. Leaving to the text, which is usually more than sufficient, the burden of teaching the youth the essentials of constitutional and political history, the teacher, by questions, hints and informal lectures, and the judicious organization of collateral reading in books and periodicals, can lead the students to a broader understanding of the story. In the end history will be more, rather than less, unified, and events will be seen, as they nearly always are, the natural and inevitable results of their times.

What has been said so far applies with equal force to any of the high school courses. For the sake of concreteness and because it is the most universally taught course, the rest of this paper will be devoted to some general suggestions for presenting the industrial side of American history. The principles may be applied to other phases of the same course or to the courses in European history.

The industrial side of American colonial history is not hard to introduce or to handle, since, in the first place, political life develops along broad simple lines, and, in the second, colonial industry itself is simple. The organization of the colonies was fashioned from the other side of the Atlantic, though new environments and distance from the seat of authority led to considerable evolution in the political life of the people. The colonial attitude toward many public questions took tone either in direct obedience or opposition to the mother country. Hence the proposal to teach much of colonial history as a part of European history does no great violence. The industrial history of the colonies, however, is strictly an American development and should be taught as part of the American history course.

Agriculture was the first and basic industry in all of the colonies. Differences in physical environment in the various sections of the Atlantic coast country combined with differences in colonists and organizations to bring about differences in land and labor systems and led to fundamental differences in the agriculture of the sections. By selected descriptions in the texts, in the various economic and industrial histories, in such works as those of Brigham,¹ Semple,² and Farrand,³ or the suggestive chapters of Simons,⁴ and extracts from the printed sources, and

¹ Brigham, Albert P. "Geographic Influences in American History." Boston, 1903.

² Semple, Ellen C. "American History and Its Geographic Conditions." Boston, 1903.

³ Farrand, Livingston. "The Basis for American History." New York, 1906.

⁴ Simons, A. M. "Social Forces in American History." New York, 1912.

best of all by the intelligent and persistent use of physical maps, the students must be forced to visualize the physical basis of our history.

The treatment of colonial land and labor systems in the ordinary text is almost nil. In most of the textbooks on industrial and economic history, it is perfunctory and vague. If the admirable books of Weeden⁵ and Bruce⁶ or any of the remarkable series of monographs contained in the Columbia Studies are available, the teacher, at least, can prepare himself. The chapters in Volume II of Professor Channing's *History of the United States*⁷ will go far to clear up matters. It is hardly possible to give the ordinary class a very clear idea of the organization and development of the New England town without an informal lecture illustrated by simple diagrams. The available illustrations, such as the maps of the Dedham "Divident" and others, should be studied and discussed in class, but a simplified and idealized plan of a typical town will go much farther to convey the idea as the students watch the laying out of homelots, fields, meadows, commons, etc., during the construction of the diagram on the blackboard.

When the question of land tenure in the southern colonies is reached the physical map must be kept before the class. The river systems of Virginia and the Carolinas must be noted. In a day when water was the only economical means of transportation, water frontage was indispensable, and the plantations soon stretched along the rivers to the fall line leaving the uplands of the divides undisturbed for a long time to come. If the teacher could have searched through Henning's *Statutes of Virginia* for the first hundred years and observed how much waterways were a subject of legislation and how little attention was paid to highways, how heavy fines were assessed for losing or stealing boats while horses ran wild in the uplands and became a nuisance and how the principal duties of a parish highway overseer included the clearing of fallen trees and other obstructions from the creeks and rivers, the picture of agricultural and commercial life in the Old Dominion could be made real.

The study of white servitude and Negro slavery is so closely related to the questions of agriculture and land tenure that the same literature will often do for both. If the school or the public library is fortunate enough to possess a set of the *Documentary History of Industrial Society*, a few well-chosen extracts from the first two volumes will prove invaluable helps. Old newspapers, if happily they are available, will furnish advertisements of shiploads of redemptioners for sale as well as notices of runaway servants and slaves. One of the classified lists of workers offered for sale will go farther than much lecturing to show that these

white servants were not all ignorant, unskilled laborers from the lowest classes. Periodical literature, in general, throws but little light on these questions. Some suggestions found in articles published in the *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* from time to time are among the most pertinent and practical aids. Two recent articles by Professor Marcus W. Jernegan⁸ are exceedingly illuminating and suggestive as well as authentic. The part played by the freedmen and the Scotch-Irish and Germans who came as freemen, in settling up the back country and laying the basis for industrial and political sectionalism in the South, must be presented and its bearings on later history suggested.

The broad differences between agriculture in New England, the Middle States and the South should be sketched. The social, economic and political aspects of these differences as they affected ideas of education, industry and local government must be noted. The teacher should avoid, however, making assertions more sweeping than the facts allow. A brief glance at George Washington's diary and account books as presented in Haworth's new book⁹ or in the pages of "American Husbandry,"¹⁰ will convince one that many Virginians did try to raise other crops than tobacco and that statement should be qualified. It is even possible to find some evidence of industries other than agriculture in the southern colonies.

It is apparent that the colonial farmer, especially in the north, must be a "jack of all trades." It is easy to bring in the story of fishing, furtrapping, salt-making, shipbuilding, iron mining, household industries and other means by which the colonist eked out a living. In connection with the fishing and the account of England's navigation laws, a chance is given for a rapid tracing of commercial development. The Woollen and similar acts cannot be understood without some account of household manufactures.

It is but a step from the story of colonial industries to the British colonial attitude toward these industries. British colonial legislation is a story of attempts to control the plantations in the economic interest of the island citizens. Each act in turn gives us occasion to trace the development of the particular form of agriculture, manufacture or commerce that gave it rise. In the end it was insistent industrial and commercial restriction that led to the enunciation of constitutional principles and the loss of the colonies.

It is not necessary to disturb the customary story of the Revolution in order to introduce the industrial side of the war. The Sugar Act, Stamp Act, Town-

⁵ Weeden, W. B. "Economic and Social History of New England." 2 vols. Boston, 1890.

⁶ Bruce, P. A. "Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century." New York, 1897.

⁷ Channing, Edward. "History of the United States," Vol. II, especially chapters XIII-XIV. New York, 1908.

⁸ Jernegan, Marcus W. "Indentured Servitude. A Forgotten Slavery of Colonial Days." "Harper's," October, 1913, 127, 745-751.

"Slavery and Conversion in the American Colonies." "American Historical Review," April, 1916, XXI, 504-527.

⁹ Haworth, Paul Leland. "George Washington, Farmer." Indianapolis, 1915.

¹⁰ "American Husbandry." Anonymous. London, 1775. See Vol. I, p. 228.

shend Acts and Oppressive Acts, and such episodes as the struggle over writs of assistance, the Boston Tea Party and others should not be studied without some reference to their economic background. Equally important are their effects seen in the growing attempts to bring economic pressure to bear upon Parliament through English merchants, by non-importation agreements, local, colony-wide and finally continental, as expressed in the agreement drawn up by the First Continental Congress.¹¹ This document should be read by sections to the class and explained, in order that the students may know the real basis for colonial complaint. So, too, the Declaration of Independence may be studied in its usual setting, but a few minutes devoted to the personnel of the Congress that drew it up and the list of grievances in the document itself will help to give it its economic bearing.

The French alliance, Valley Forge and the Newburg Addresses may well be used to introduce the story of colonial finance. This may be in the form of a brief lecture or recital by the teacher, but better still by specific questions accompanied by detailed references to economic histories, extracts from the sources or longer accounts. Apt quotations from Revolutionary notables will create a lasting impression.

The commercial conditions during the period immediately after the war cannot be understood without some idea of the effects of the Revolution in cutting off American shipping and foreign commerce and stimulating home manufactures. Tables and diagrams showing imports and exports¹² and statements of contemporaries such as that of David Ramsay printed in Bogart and Thompson's new Readings in the Economic History of the United States¹³ will quickly fix this point.

So much has been said and printed about commercial and industrial necessity as the source of our constitution that it should not be difficult to give this phase its proper emphasis. The real problem is to see just how important a part industrial and economic life had in giving birth to the new nation and in giving shape and direction to it during its early years. This calls for a study of the influences brought to bear upon early congresses under the Constitution and the legislation enacted as a result. When it is discovered that laws encouraging and protecting shipping, commerce and manufactures as well as inventive and mechanical progress, comprise the bulk of these early efforts and that statistics prove the immediate effectiveness of some of these acts, the groundwork is laid. For the high school student the reading to cover this in the time that can be allotted to it is un-

fortunately scanty. The excellent chapter on National Beginnings in Miss Coman's Industrial History of the United States¹⁴ is almost indispensable as a supplement to the ordinary text. Page references to Tausig's Tariff History, to many texts and the larger general histories will help some where there is time for it. Carefully selected extracts from the sources as found in several well-known source-books and collections of "readings" will go far to fill out the story. A study of selected portions of Hamilton's Report on Manufacturers¹⁵ will give the protectionist argument as presented in that far-off day. Attention should be called to the fact that Hamilton advocated the development of a manufacturing system because, among other things, it would give steady employment to women and children.¹⁶ This he held to be a distinct and unqualified advantage. Even Washington, nearly three years before had fathered such a sentiment in a letter to Lafayette.¹⁷ The students should be asked if this was a valid argument. Few high school classes, indeed, will not include some individuals with sufficient grasp of present-day social problems and knowledge of current events to see the defects of this argument. Once the twentieth century viewpoint is made plain the explanation follows in developing by question and suggestion the fact that America in 1791 had no manufacturing system. Hamilton as well as others must have been unfamiliar with the momentous social and economic results of the industrial revolution already in progress on the other side of the Atlantic. A very casual search through the writings of Englishmen of that day reveals the fact that the evils of modern industrialism were already apparent and crying for remedy. For instance, Thomas Cooper, a lawyer and manufacturer of Manchester until 1798 and afterwards a citizen of the United States, wrote in 1794: "I detest the manufacturing system . . . you must in this system have a large portion of the people converted into mere machines, ignorant, debauched, and brutal, that the surplus value of their labor of 12 or 14 hours a day may go into the pockets and supply the luxuries of rich commercial and manufacturing capitalists. I detest the system and am grieved to see that so sensible a man as Mr. Hamilton can urge, in his report on American manufactures, their furnishing employment to *children*, as an argument for their being established in America. I hope to see the time come when not only childhood but the youth of the poorest inhabitant of this country, female as well as male, shall be employed in the improvement of their understanding under some system of national education and in labor no further than is conducive to health and pleasure . . . even manhood was not intended for incessant labor, nor is the system

¹¹ Hinsdale, B. A. "American Government." New York, 1905, pp. 447-451. Contains a complete copy of the document.

¹² Coman, Katherine. "Industrial History of the United States," pp. 101-118. New York, 1910.

¹³ Bogart, E. L., and Thompson, C. M. "Readings in the Economic History of the United States," pp. 181-184. New York, 1916.

¹⁴ Coman. "Industrial History," Chapter V.

¹⁵ Tausig, F. W. "State Papers on the Tariff," 1-107. New York, 1910.

¹⁶ Ibid, 19.

¹⁷ Callender, Guy S. "Selections from the Economic History of the United States," 234. Boston, 1909.

of incessant labor conducive to human happiness."¹⁸ The writings of Cooper, Franklin and others may be quoted as representative of those who believed the inexhaustible supply of free land would keep America an agricultural country for many years to come.¹⁹

The petitions with which the first Congress was besieged and the debates that followed indicate a great divergency of interests and demands, particularly concerning protection to manufactures and encouragement to shipping. These conflicts represent industrial differences between sections, broadly speaking between North and South, but also to divisions and elements within the sections, e.g., the rivalry between shipping and manufacturing interests in the North. By a rapid survey it can be shown that these sectional conflicts have appeared in the making of every tariff and shipping bill down to the very latest. The alignment has been shifted from time to time and sometimes has been badly warped in political trades and alliances—sectionalism has changed form and terms—but the thing itself has always been with us. The teacher should localize the appeal by references to well-known sectional views. The western farmer, for example, has always been inclined to oppose tariffs on textiles, steel, iron and machinery, leather and other eastern products. It has been very easy in many cases to get him to think the tariff an unmixed evil. When, however, through "reciprocity treaties" or otherwise, a proposal is made to remove the tariff from farm products—wheat, butter, eggs, raw wool or what not—his views on the theory of the tariff have undergone a sudden and profound modification.

The War of 1812 cannot be taught in its true significance until the story of the amazing growth of American shipping down to 1810 is told. The Orders in Council and Napoleonic Decrees, the embargo and non-intercourse acts, are not half told unless the consequences to American shipping, manufactures and agriculture are considered. The facts of the wonderful expansion in cotton and woollen milling and iron manufacture are not understood without some knowledge of the English industrial revolution of the eighteenth century and that story must come into any complete course of American history, either by assigned readings or a short, simple, illustrated lecture. A great deal of time need not be taken for this, but the essentials of the story should be emphasized. When it is clear that what was taking place in America between 1805 and 1815 was really the first stages of the Industrial Revolution, some thirty or forty years behind England, but ahead of most continental European countries,²⁰ the tariff of 1816 ceases to be a bugbear and an enigma. A brief comparison of

Dallas's report on manufactures²¹ with that of Hamilton a quarter of a century before will attest the increased knowledge of industrial affairs possessed by Americans. New England's disaffection as expressed by the Hartford Convention had a distinctly economic background. It should be noted and the students cautioned to watch for future manifestations of the same kind.

The great political struggles that make up the history of the United States down to 1860 have nearly all of them in common industrial and social questions as a background. The entrance of the West still further complicated matters and made possible shifting combinations to gain economic ends through legislation. As territorial expansion and the westward movement of population developed, the industrial rivalry of the older sections became a struggle to control or retard the new sections in the interests of the old. In turn the industrial development of the new lands to the West raised new political questions. Detailed study of the industrial progress of the sections can be much or little, depending upon time and the ingenuity of the teacher, but at least the broad outlines must be sketched and the suggestion of economic setting made for each event or movement. Much of this can be done by setting concrete problems before the students. Why was Webster for free trade and sectional rights in 1811 and for the tariff and national existence in 1830? Why was Calhoun a strong nationalist in 1811 and the leader of States' rights and nullification in 1828 and 1832? Whence did Albert Gallatin get his clear view as to the need for internal improvements? Why was Clay always for tariffs and internal improvements? Why was Benton so enthusiastically in favor of hard money and an increase of western influence in the government? What projects were first in Douglas's program from the time he entered the Senate and why? What were the reasons back of the long series of compromises over the question of slavery in the territories? Why did Texas revolt from Mexico in 1836? Why did the East oppose all measures calculated to hasten the settling up of the West? What part did advances in transportation play in westward expansion and agricultural development? These questions and many more, properly handled, will give the industrial setting for the story of national development.

The industrial differences between North and South forced the political dispute that culminated in the Civil War. The questions of morality and constitutional theory should not be minimized for a minute, but the fact remains that industrial and economic differences converted a doctrinary dispute into an "irrepressible conflict." The sections had grown so far apart that sympathy among the leaders was largely impossible. If the political history of the country to 1860 has been studied with cause and effect always in mind, the class approaches the Civil War period prepared for this conclusion. In the end the great struggle itself appears largely as a decisive

¹⁸ Cooper, Thomas. "Some Information Concerning America," pp. 77-79. London, 1794.

¹⁹ Ibid, pp. 1-2. Callender, "Economic History," pp. 35-36 and 75-76.

²⁰ Bogart, Ernest Ludlow. "Economic History of the United States," Chapter XII. Third edition. New York, 1914.

²¹ Taussig, "State Papers on the Tariff," pp. 214-251.

conflict between the industrial systems built up on either side the dividing line in the half dozen preceding decades. The North won—her wheat, corn, oats, cattle and hogs, her railways, mines and factories, her resources of population, were easier of mobilization and more productive of war strength than King Cotton hampered by blockade and invading army, and the South failed in the contest of endurance. The North actually gained strength, industrially and commercially, during the progress of the war. The teacher who has read the accounts of this period in Coman, Dodd,²² Fite²³ and Schwab,²⁴ to say nothing of longer works, should have no difficulty in presenting textbook facts of the sectional struggle with a proper emphasis on industrial aspects. There must be some abbreviation and revamping to make room. In connection with the blockade, the cotton famine in Lancashire and the prices of cotton in New York and Liverpool during the war, are probably ample compensation for leaving out some details of gun-boat skirmishes. A few of the ways in which the blockade played its important part in reducing the South should be noted. To quote Admiral Mahan, "The destruction of the Confederacy's intercourse with the outer world, like some deep-seated local disease, poisoned the springs of life, spreading remorselessly through innumerable hidden channels into every part of the political frame, till the whole was sick unto the death."²⁵ If it is true or partly true that McCormick's reaper won the Civil War, the story of the expansion of the Northwest before and during the war might well take the place of detailed facts concerning changes in commanding officers in relatively unimportant divisions of the army.

Though more complex in many ways, the danger of omitting the industrial side of American history since the Civil War is really less, for industrialism took the upper hand in American affairs during that struggle and has maintained it since. It is probably safe to say that the industrial revolution, with its concomitants of capitalism, class consciousness and social changes, made more progress during the decade of the sixties than in several preceding. There is small chance of failing to see the industrial bearing of most public questions, since the elements of constitutional and political theory are largely eliminated and questions are debated on their merits, strictly as matters of economic wisdom or unwisdom, expediency or inexpediency.

The complexity and magnitude of industrial development during the last half-century, as well as the

fact that it is recent history render the teacher's task far more exacting, even though more obvious. It requires intimate knowledge of details in many fields together with a faculty for selection and grouping, comprising a real test of historical training. Not only must the course include the development of industries as found in text, and reference books and periodicals, but it must include their latest phases as presented in the fleeting form of the morning paper, advertisement, catalog, railroad folder and a thousand other publications. Much of this is impossible in the high school course, but the outlines can be fixed largely through the proper direction of the student's outside reading and through special reports. Here again the setting of concrete problems as suggested earlier must not be overlooked. The students should be encouraged in the collection of all types of material, newspaper clippings, pictures, folders, catalogs, public documents, departmental bulletins and many others.

This study of industrial history draws upon the general reading and first hand knowledge of the students as perhaps no other study can do. This is a positive virtue—it makes all of the knowledge at hand available and breaks down the artificial boundaries that courses tend to throw around their little monopolistic fields. Students are at first shocked and then pleased to find that information gleaned in courses in economics, sociology, civics, engineering, science, agriculture, farm management, from the daily papers, and from their own travels and observations, is accepted and evaluated in the history class. Properly handled this should be of far-reaching effect in developing individuality and initiative along right lines.

Of all students, those studying industrial history should be interested in current events. Most of the great industrial movements are still in process and the logical continuation of the textbook story is to be found in the dailies and weeklies. The high school student should be encouraged to look for news in the industrial world as well as the more stirring events of politics and war. Even the latter should be handled so as to show their industrial bearing. The class room exercises should allow for a discussion of these current events.

The problem of giving the industrial side of high school history its proper emphasis is to a certain extent a problem of properly written textbooks. Still more it is a problem of proper library facilities. To a far greater extent—most of all—it is a problem of the properly trained and equipped teacher who knows industrial history and knows its place. Without such a teacher the work must wait until the adequate textbook and guide comes and then be done in a half-hearted way.

Above all, it is not a new history that is to be taught—merely a different viewpoint to be taken. It is causes and explanations that are to be sought as much as events themselves. It is the emphasis that counts. Not every historical event can be explained economically. Few can be explained entirely that way. There is a growing tendency among many to

²² Dodd, William E. "Expansion and Conflict." Boston, 1915.

²³ Fite, Emerson David. "Social and Industrial Conditions in the North During the Civil War." New York, 1910.

²⁴ Schwab, John C. "The Confederate States of America." New York, 1901.

²⁵ Mahan, Captain A. T. "Some Neglected Aspects of War," p. 171. Boston, 1907.

flout all other history and accept the economic interpretation for everything. In this perversion may be as much of error as in the ignoring of the economic. There has never been a time when intellectual, moral and spiritual influences and ideals have not played a part in shaping events. Constitutional theory and moral propaganda have something more than mere economic struggle at their bases. Notwithstanding these profound exceptions it is safe to say that, in a large part, human desire and human action are based on economic interest and that, in a far larger degree than the older historians were wont to admit, the history of industry is the history of humanity. Often idealism itself is based on the desire of unselfish individuals to get for down-trodden groups their fair share of economic goods. The following words of Admiral Mahan are powerfully suggestive even though some of us might wish to discount them slightly.

"Economical facts largely brought about the separation of America from Great Britain; economical facts brought about the American union and continue to bind it. The closer union of the territories which now constitute the British Empire must be found in economical adjustments: the fact of common race is not sufficient thereto. Now, economical influences are of the most purely material order—the order of personal self interest; in that form at least they appeal to the great majority, for the instructed political economists form but a small proportion of any community. Race, yes; territory—country—yes; the heart thrills, the eyes fill, self-sacrifice seems natural; the moral motive for the moment prevails; but in the long run the hard pressure of economical truth comes down upon these with the tyranny of the despot. There are indeed noble leaders not a few, who see in this crushing burden upon their fellow millions an enemy to be confronted and vanquished . . . so giving play to the loftier sentiments. But . . . their very mission, alike in its successes and failures, testifies to the preponderant weight of economical conditions in the social world.

"Nor in the social world only. We shall not see aright the political movement of the world at large, the course of history past and present, until we discern underlying all, consciously or blindly, these primitive physical necessities directing the desires of the peoples, and through them the course of their governments."²⁶

To the trained student of industrial and economic history, the observations made herein must seem obvious if not pertinent. Such persons, if teaching high school history, will have solved the problem already. For the teacher who has not reached a solution, these remarks are intended as suggestive—never as a guide. No attempt at extensive bibliography has been made because in the main the intention has been to show what could be done with the material already at hand to show the industrial side of history, and for the further reason that extensive biblio-

graphics can be found in the texts and guides in industrial history, an acquaintance with which is absolutely essential before the beginner can hope for any consistent results in his presentation of history from this angle. The high school history teacher who comes to know thoroughly the books of Bogart, Thompson, Callender and Coman mentioned in these pages is in a fair way to present the basic facts of American industrial history. A selection of texts almost as limited will give the outlines of European and world industrial history. Bibliographical suggestions enough will be found in these books. In addition the teacher should have some acquaintance with economic ideas and the development of economic thought to help him get his bearings. If he has not had the advantage of college training along these lines, he must read something of the best that has been written. Many books have appeared purporting to expound the theory of economic interpretation. Two of the best of these are the books of Professors Seligman²⁷ and Haney;²⁸ they will help any teacher or student in his efforts to define a well-balanced theory of history.

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²⁷ Seligman, Edwin R. A. "The Economic Interpretation of History." New York, 1903.

²⁸ Haney, Lewis H. "History of Economic Thought." New York, 1915.

²⁶ Mahan. "Neglected Aspects of War," pp. 79-80.

A Vital Problem of the Rural High School

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To a pre-eminent degree the Twentieth Century is an age of reconstruction nor has our educational system escaped the general tendency. From the university to the primary school, the curriculum is being subjected to a constant and searching overhauling to determine how educational ideals may best be secured. New courses are constantly being proposed, while time-honored subjects are being discarded. Much that is valuable has been added, but the modern spirit is casting away much that is worth while. Among the foremost of our educational problems is that of the rural high school. As agricultural interests dominate in the South and the Mississippi Valley, a sensible solution of the many problems of the rural high school is to these sections, especially, a matter of vital importance. If one should venture an inquiry as to the aim of the rural high schools, supported almost wholly by public funds, the prompt reply would be to provide a body of educated citizens. Such an answer falls short of the entire truth. The real object and justification of these schools is not merely to secure men and women with trained intellects. Rather there is a higher aim: to develop patriotic citizens, possessing a real appreciation of our present evolution as a nation and of our present problems.

The courses in American history and civics are recognized as the primary means of securing this higher aim. But as administered at present in the rural high school, they are usually far from effective. The situation in Indiana may be considered as typical, certainly of the Mississippi Valley and the South, and perhaps of other rural sections. In Indiana both American history and civics must be offered as electives in high schools. One course in history must be selected. The result of these requirements is by no means satisfactory. Although exact statistics are not obtainable, an extended experience with students who have been prepared in rural districts would justify the assertion that, in Indiana, a large proportion, perhaps a majority, take ancient history, the course offered in the first year of the high school, as the required unit, and then calmly ignore the claims of American history. Civics is probably taught in some sort of fashion to a larger proportion of students. But so far as securing actual results in a real understanding of the past development and present problems of the American nation, neither course is at present satisfactory. Certainly this is not an ideal situation. It may be scarcely fair to fix the entire responsibility upon the orthodox arrangement of courses which first presents the bitterest morsel in

the shape of ancient history, and thus effectually destroy any further taste for historical study. Still, some cog in our educational machine must have slipped when students in rural high schools so deliberately turn their backs upon American history and civics. To the practical teacher the one course open is to discover and to remove the causes of this situation.

But some pessimistic prophet of woe may proclaim that there is no remedy. An exceedingly materialistic age is rapidly crowding American history and civics into the limbo of discarded subjects, along with Greek, Latin, and other relics of a supposedly moss-grown curriculum. Especially in the rural high schools, practical subjects, such as agriculture and domestic science, are forcing to the rear many so-called cultural courses. But is it true that even the practical mind would discard really live courses in American history and civics? For instance, one cannot read intelligently the abounding wealth of printed matter on such a subject as national preparedness without a knowledge of American history, nor can even so practical a subject as conservation be otherwise understood. Neither, in an age of an intense quickening of the national consciousness can we afford to ignore civics. The real cause of the present decline in these two courses in the rural high school therefore is not due to the subjects themselves, but rather to the method of presentation. It is the dull monotony of the daily grind that too often characterizes instruction in American history and civics that is at the root of the evil.

In Indiana, steps have been taken to cope with the situation. Among the provisions of a Vocational School Law passed in 1913, was one to establish either agricultural high schools or courses in agriculture and domestic science in connection with existing rural high schools. As it was feared that these new vocational courses would eclipse American history and civics, the History Section of the Indiana Teachers' Association appointed a committee² to devise some means of confronting the situation. In co-operation with the State Supervisor of Agricultural Education, the committee investigated the needs of American history and civics in agricultural and rural high schools, and recommended certain modifications in the existing courses. After this report had been submitted to a large number of teachers, many of them outside the State, a final report, embodying the numerous criticisms that had been received, was drawn up. This last report was published as a part of the bulletin that outlines the State requirements for courses in agri-

¹ Paper read at the annual session of the History Teachers' Section, Mississippi Valley Historical Association, April 27, 1916, at Nashville, Tenn.

² See Indiana Department of Public Instruction, Educational Bulletins, Bulletin No. 15, Vocational Series No. 10, Indianapolis, 1915.

culture. The State Supervisor of Agricultural Education recommended the suggestions in this final report for adoption by both the agricultural and the rural high schools, especially where the latter established agricultural departments. The conditions found in Indiana and the proposed remedies apply, with only slight modifications, in other rural sections.

The failure to secure well trained teachers constitutes a fundamental and an exceedingly difficult problem. Ideally the courses in American history and civics should be given by a college graduate who has specialized in these subjects. This is generally done in urban schools, but the resources of rural districts are usually too small to justify such a custom. Too often teachers of sewing and cooking, or of chemistry and physics, who have a little spare time, are asked to fill up their schedules with civics, and sometimes with American history. The wonder is that such a system has not killed in these schools the entire interest in the subjects.

How then is this fundamental problem of securing trained teachers to be met? The advance of the consolidated school movement should aid, but it is not likely that the ideal will be realized in the near future, and that a teacher trained in American history and civics will be secured in every rural school. Any proposed reform must recognize this limitation. Now inadequately prepared teachers often fail to recognize their own limitations, although they are usually conscientious and ready to follow practical suggestions.

Therefore they must be shown how to acquire a broader background, how to present these subjects, and how to use the many modern aids in their courses. Books should be suggested that are suitable for these purposes, a work in which the State Library may take a large part. The excellent facilities afforded by summer schools and by correspondence courses should also help. Then, too, a little missionary work among principals and trustees of rural high schools would not be amiss. If teachers who are unprepared are to continue to give courses in American history and civics, they should be required to strengthen their background.

The next problem, that of affording necessary facilities in the form of reference work for these courses, also presents numerous difficulties. Here conditions in rural high schools are woefully deficient, although a slight improvement is being made. The largesses of a Carnegie have not yet been extended to rural districts where often the only available library is the meager collection in the school-house. At the outset it is often difficult to awaken a realization of the necessity for such aids. It is readily conceded that the course in agriculture must have a plot of land for practical demonstrations, or that chemistry needs at least an excuse for a laboratory, if only a few test-tubes or a choice collection of bottles filled with highly colored and odoriferous compounds. But there is a widespread belief that for American history and civics the text-book is amply sufficient. This old-fashioned notion must be overcome, and school boards must be

convinced of the necessity for a working reference library. Or perhaps the interest of the neighborhood may be aroused and the money raised by private subscriptions. The need of maps, too, both for the wall and for class-room use must not be overlooked. Lastly, there should be some good historical pictures to lend atmosphere to the classroom. The excellent work of the Virginia Co-operative Educational Association shows what can be accomplished in securing these aids. But suppose a small sum for the historical laboratory has been painfully extracted from the school trustees; the problem of judicious expenditure arises. Unfortunately the extensive bibliographical lists that proclaim the learning of text-book writers must usually be avoided as pitfalls for the unwary, unless the teacher is protected by a wide and varied experience.

In the courses themselves reform is urgently needed. First, the previous preparation of the student should be more generally considered. Usually American history and civics have already been given in the grades, and upon this foundation the high school teacher should build. Too often these courses constitute merely repetitions with variations and trimmings in the shape of a more extensive assortment of facts and dates. A course of this type repels; it never attracts. Rather there should be a recognition of the increasing maturity of the student, and our high school courses in American history should be fashioned as a second cycle after the German plan. Of utmost importance is the adaptation of the subject matter of the course to the environment of the student. It is a prime pedagogical principle that the familiar should constitute the point of approach to the unfamiliar, for that which is a part of daily life is far more appreciated than that which is distant. In civics especially, there should be a recognition of this principle, the course being modified to the needs of the rural as distinguished from the urban pupil. In American history the rural pupil will better appreciate the importance of agriculture in the upbuilding of the nation, while the city pupil will correspondingly understand industrial forces. Either one will more fully appreciate both American history and civics if the accent is laid upon the phases of the subject with which he is most familiar. This then is the principle upon which courses in American history and civics should be adapted to the needs of the rural high school. Such modification would not imply courses either in purely agricultural history or in rural government, but rather American history with a strong accent upon agricultural forces, and civics with a corresponding emphasis upon rural problems. In such fashion it would be possible to revitalize these subjects and to appeal forcibly to the student.

But how may so revolutionary a departure from orthodox standards be carried out? With the present system of uniform text-books, it would seem to be impossible unless we wait until new and probably unsatisfactory texts have edged past the bar of State boards. Such delay is by no means necessary. The changes that are advocated would include merely

the purposeful accentuation of certain parts of the present text-books and the use of additional aids, especially reference works and maps. The criticism that the cost would be prohibitory can, and has been met. "The report of the Indiana committee gives a list of the necessary references. For American history, the minimum cost, including maps, is only \$17.85; for civics \$16.30; or a total of \$34.15 for the two courses. Surely this small sum is not altogether beyond the financial ability of even the smallest rural school. The training of our boys and girls to a realization of our national development and governmental problems must certainly be worth at least this minimum.

So much for the general modifications to meet the needs of the rural high school. To be more specific, in American history the widespread failure to arouse interest is due, in large measure, to a lack of emphasis upon that which is more familiar and therefore more appealing. The proposed modifications of this course would center around two leading principles; the influence of agricultural forces and the place of the particular section in which the student lives in the development of the nation. For the first, many broad lines of development may be traced out. For example, the important influence of agricultural conditions upon the colonial period should receive attention. Next should be noted the conflict between agricultural and commercial interests which was so influential in bringing on the Civil War. The place of agricultural influences in settling and developing the Central West and the Gulf States should also be noted, especially in the rural schools of those sections. Many other instances might be cited of the influence of agricultural forces upon the life of the nation, but those that have been given are typical.

Next, stress should be laid upon the influence of the section, and more particularly upon the period of its greatest power. Thus, for New England and the Middle States, the colonial period should be accented; for the Gulf States the years preceding and following the Civil War; and for the Mississippi Valley the eras of exploration, settlement and development. This, too, is the fittest place to bring in whatever of State history is incorporated in the high school curriculum, including especially the place of the State in the life of the nation. For example, in Indiana the Hoosier influence should receive especial attention. By accenting the section and State, the student will be aroused to an interest in the historical development of the nation, a conception that is less familiar and therefore more difficult.

In carrying out these suggestions great caution must be observed to avoid a myopic indifference to other sections and interests and to the national development. This constitutes a problem of great difficulty. To emphasize agricultural and sectional influences, and to preserve at the same time a perspective of the whole, is an exceedingly complex, yet not an impossible task. Commercial and other economic and social forces, and the influence of other sections must not be ignored. Nor must the course present

piecemeal views of detached bits of history, rather than an organized and systematic conception of a unified development. By great care on the part of the teacher the seemingly impossible may be accomplished, especially with the aid of a reference library. Map work, too, will prove of special help in impressing upon the student physical features, and thus showing the background of economic development.

In the civics course, it is difficult at the outset to arouse any great amount of enthusiasm for the national government which is too far removed from the everyday experience of the student. But the administration of the township is a matter of common observation which the student constantly hears discussed in his daily life. Therefore this is the proper point of approach for a civics course in a rural high school, and it is here that the chief emphasis should be laid. It is of little practical use to teach country boys and girls the intricacies of the city commission plan of government, if they are almost wholly ignorant of the problems of their own community. The city and its problems, and the machinery of State and national administration should be understood, but to rural government should be given the greater proportion of the time devoted to the course.

Also, the instruction in civics should be of an essentially practical nature. There must be of course a thorough understanding of the theory and structure of government, but in addition, to arouse interest the student should understand its actual operation. In short, only the necessary theory should be given and stress be laid on the actual working of the government. Every boy and girl will take an interest in public affairs if only an effective appeal is made. For this purpose a number of expedients may be employed. A daily paper and a good weekly should be in every school library, so that many of the problems studied in civics may be illustrated in current events. Excellent results in teaching the community ideal have been realized by making out surveys of the township or the county, and by giving the class some practical problem, such as the beautification of the schoolyard, or the planting of trees along the roadside. Debating clubs, also, often prove helpful.

In connection with the civics course there should be some instruction in elementary economics. Preferably this should form a separate course, but with an already overcrowded curriculum such a change is not very probable. Therefore any work in economics must be in connection with the course in civics. Again emphasis should be laid upon rural conditions, and this instruction in economics should take up such important and practical problems as local taxation, good roads, and rural credits. In considering city, State and national government, also, economic questions may be discussed as far as time allows. Much of this work may be done in the form of explanations by the teacher, but for the reference work many excellent books are available, and often public reports of great value may be had for the asking.

In conclusion, the entire aim of these suggestions

is to meet existing conditions and so to adapt the courses in American history and civics to the needs of the rural high school that they may become vitalized, awakening the real interest of the student. By this means it is believed that the threatened encroachment of vocational studies will be met. Moreover, by train-

ing good citizens, who appreciate the dignity of rural life and its problems, American history and civics may aid in one of the great ends of our agricultural courses, to promote the well-being of our rural communities, and to keep our country boys and girls at home.

The College Entrance Examination Board's Questions for 1916

Through the courtesy of Dr. Thomas S. Fiske, Secretary of the College Entrance Examination Board, the MAGAZINE is enabled to publish below a complete set of the questions in history for the June and the September examinations of this year. In June a separate set of questions was prepared for each of the four fields of history, and in addition a comprehensive examination was prepared upon all the fields of history. In the September examinations the comprehensive examination alone was offered.

HISTORY A—ANCIENT HISTORY.

In each answer give dates.

Two hours.

PART I. (Answer two questions only.)

1. What were the relations of the Hebrews with the Assyrians and with the Babylonians? What are the prohibitions enumerated in the Ten Commandments?
2. Write on two of the following men: Cimon, Lysander, Epaminondas, Euripides.
3. Explain the importance of Alexandria in ancient history.
4. Compare the economic problems that confronted Solon with those that confronted the Gracchi. Describe the solutions offered by each.

PART II. (Answer two questions only.)

5. Tell how Rome was governed about 50 B. C.
6. Write on two of the following men: Hannibal, Marius, Hadrian, Attilla.
7. Describe Caesar's conquest of Gaul.
8. How did the Roman judges develop the Roman law? Why was it desirable to codify the Roman law?

PART III. (Answer one question only.)

9. Explain the present meaning and the historical origin of five of the following expressions: Laconic speech, Delphic utterance, Socratic method, sophistry, between Scylla and Charybdis, Fabian policy, Pyrrhic victory.
10. Tell the story of the conquest of Greece by Rome.

PART IV. (Required.)

11. Write brief notes on five of the following topics: Pyramids, Greek historians, Council of the Areopagus, Roman slaves, Roman frontier defenses, a Roman house, Corinthian order of architecture. What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of these topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?

PART V. (Answer two parts only of question 12.)

12. (a) Mark on map 130b the name and location of five of the following:
Chief Corinthian colony.
Capital of Lydia.
Defeat of Persians by Pausanias.
Defeat of the Athenian fleet in 405 B. C.
First victory of Alexander in Asia Minor.
Site of the Olympic Games.
Site of the Trojan War.

- (b) Mark on map 132b the name and location of five of the following:

Last battle of the Punic Wars.

First Roman naval victory against the Carthaginians.

Chief city of the Etruscans.

Seaport of Rome.

River separating Cisalpine Gaul from ancient Italy.

Most important Greek city in Sicily.

Volcano in the Italian peninsula.

- (c) Mark on map 132b the route of the principal Roman roads, and the location of five of the following:

Aquileia, Ariminum, Beneventum, Brundisium, Mediolanum, Placentia, Rhegium, Tarentum.

HISTORY B—MEDIEVAL AND MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

In each answer give dates.

Two hours.

PART I. (Answer one question only.)

1. What were the essential elements of the feudal system? What were the obligations of the feudal vassal to his overlord?
2. Who were the leaders of First and Third Crusades? What was the result of the First Crusade? What were the general effects of the crusades on Europe?
3. What was the Renaissance? Give the names of several men prominent in the Renaissance and state for what each was famous.

PART II. (Answer one question only.)

4. What was the origin of the city of Venice, and what were the causes of its long-continued prosperity, and the reasons for its decline? When did the city lose its independence?
5. Give an account of the career of two of the following: Gustavus Adolphus, William the Silent, Peter the Great, Mazarin.
6. If a person had traveled about Europe between the years 1700 and 1715, what famous men, events, and buildings might he have seen?

PART III. (Answer two questions only.)

7. What important political events took place in France during the first two years of the French Revolution?
8. Describe the effects of the Franco-Prussian War upon the governments of France and Germany, and upon Italy.
9. What have been the successive European powers which since 1500 have controlled the territory known as Belgium? State briefly the causes of the change of control in each case.
10. Discuss the importance of sea-power in the Mediterranean, and give two or more cases to illustrate your answer.

PART IV. (Required.)

11. Write brief notes on six of the following: Great Schism, Salic Law, Edict of Nantes, the Continental System, Institutes of the Christian Religion, Rossbach, Rousseau, Young Turks. What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of these topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?

PART V. (Answer two parts only of question 12.)

12. (a) Mark on map 132b the name and location of five of the following towns: Florence, Genoa, Pisa, Pavia, Trieste, Turin.
- (b) Mark on map 111b the name and location of five of the following: Avignon, Brittany, Moselle, Navarre, Normandy, Orleans.
- (c) Mark on map 111b the name and location of five of the following: Alsace, Antwerp, Carpathians, Dunkirk, Belgrade, Silesia.

HISTORY C—ENGLISH HISTORY.

In each answer give dates. Two hours.

PART I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Describe the development of Parliament, both as to composition and powers, until the reign of Richard II.
2. On what occasions between 1066 and 1453 did a foreign army contend on English soil, and an English army on foreign soil?

PART II. (Answer two questions only.)

3. Write on two of the following persons: John Wyclif, Thomas Wentworth, John Milton, John Wesley, Robert Clive, Florence Nightingale.
4. Describe the agricultural organization of a medieval English manor.
5. What motives led Englishmen into the great colonization movement of the seventeenth century? What contributed to the success of this movement?
6. Describe the conflicts with the Papacy which took place in England before the time of Henry VIII.

PART III. (Answer one question only.)

7. How did Henry VII strengthen the royal power? Explain, by giving definite examples, how far his work was undone later.
8. What was the religious settlement which Elizabeth established? Name and distinguish carefully the religious groups within a century after her accession who were dissatisfied with this settlement.
9. What of permanent value did Oliver Cromwell accomplish for England both in foreign and domestic affairs?

PART IV. (Answer one question only.)

10. Describe the development of the British attitude toward colonies during the last hundred years. Give examples to illustrate your answer.
11. Discuss England's policy toward Turkey since the Crimean War.
12. What did Gladstone accomplish in his various ministries?

PART V. (Required.)

13. Write brief notes on five of the following: Norman architecture, Common Law and Canon Law, The Instrument of Government, Craft Gilds, The Peace of Utrecht, Transvaal.

What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to the textbook on any of these topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?

PART VI. (Answer two parts only of question 14.)

14. (a) Mark on map 121b the name and boundary of five of the following counties: Cornwall, Devon, Kent, Middlesex, Oxford, Norfolk, Lancashire, York.
- (b) Mark on map 123b the name and location of five of the following: Bantry Bay, Boyne, Drogheda, Dublin, the English Pale, Londonderry, Ulster.
- (c) Mark the name and boundary of all the lands on map 113b which belonged to, or were controlled by, England just before the war of 1914. State briefly on the back of the map how England came into possession or control of each of these lands.

HISTORY D—AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

In each answer give dates. Two hours.

PART I. (Answer two questions only.)

1. Describe the part played in the history of Virginia by two of her leaders before 1783.
2. Explain the hostility of Charles II to Massachusetts Bay colony which led to the loss of its charter in 1684.
3. Describe the commercial policy of England toward her colonies before 1760. What were the advantages and disadvantages of this policy?
4. Explain the slow growth of the Dutch colony, New Netherlands, and describe the effort made to increase the population.

PART II. (Answer two questions only.)

5. What was the part played in the financial history of the United States by Alexander Hamilton and Andrew Jackson?
6. What were the important results of the War of 1812? What measures passed by Congress at its close and shortly afterward indicate that the war "had awakened a national consciousness?"
7. In what elections was Henry Clay a candidate for the presidency? State the issues, the names of the rival candidates, and the results in each, explaining fully the reasons for his defeat in the last election in which he was a candidate.
8. Name six Secretaries of State, and tell under what President each served. Give an outline of the services of two of them as Secretaries.

PART III. (Answer one question only.)

9. What were the leading political issues in two presidential campaigns since 1864?
10. Explain the difference between making a treaty and resorting to arbitration. Give the provisions of two treaties and two arbitration settlements since the Civil War.
11. Give the provisions of two laws in the enactment of which John Sherman played an important part.

PART IV. (Answer one question only.)

12. Discuss the influence of the decisions of John Marshall upon the development of the powers of the national government, giving definite cases to illustrate your points.
13. Mention at least two cases of political opposition to the Supreme Court of the United States, and explain fully the nature of the opposition in each case.
14. Discuss fully the powers of the President in foreign affairs. What is the part of the Senate in foreign affairs?

PART V. (Answer one part only of question 15.)

15. (a) Trace on map 195b the progress of Washington's army from the Battle of Brooklyn Heights to the beginning of the siege of New York in 1778. Indicate clearly the name and location of the principal battles and places connected with this progress.
 - (b) Mark on map 176b as definitely as possible four of the following: Northwest Territory of 1787, boundaries of Kansas-Nebraska as set off by the Kansas-Nebraska Act, northern boundary of Florida after 1795, territory in dispute between the United States and Mexico in 1846, Mason and Dixon's line.
- What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any subject connected with the course?

COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATION—HISTORY.

Three hours.

Selecting one of the five divisions, answer fully six questions as there required. Take about two hours of your time for these six questions.

If you have studied in your school course only one of

these divisions, answer one, or two, or three additional questions from that division.

If, on the other hand, you have studied two or more of these divisions, answer three additional questions not in the division first selected.

Give dates, or approximate dates, where they are needed.

DIVISION I: ANCIENT HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Darius I, Socrates, Epaminondas, Aspasia.
2. Trace the series of events that led up to the outbreak of war between Athens and Sparta in 431 B. C.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Pyrrhus, Hannibal, Trajan, Attila.
4. Trace the series of events that led up to the first triumvirate.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

5. Was Athens in the right in opposing Philip of Macedon? Give reasons for your answer.
6. Did Augustus restore the Republic in Rome? Give reasons for thinking that he did.

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 7.)

7. Mark on map 132b or 135b or 134b:
 - (a) The main political divisions of Italy prior to the Roman conquest.
 - (b) The countries in Asia through which Alexander the Great marched, and the rivers which he crossed.
 - (c) Roman Britain at Hadrian's time, Dacia, the land of the Philistines, Coreyra, Mantinea, Lugdunum, Adrianople.

GROUP V. (Answer question 8 and either 9 or 10.)

8. Write notes on five of the following topics: The Ten Commandments, the foreign policy of Sparta, Greek comedy, "militarism" in Rome, the writings of Tacitus, paganism, stoicism.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
9. Characterize the chief epochs in the development of Greek sculpture, connecting with each epoch some sculptors and statues.
10. What countries supplied grain to (a) Athens, (b) Rome? Cite with appropriate explanations as many instances as you can when the course of events in Athens and Rome was determined by questions of food supply.

DIVISION II: MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Otto the Great, Savonarola, Saladin, Francis of Assisi.
2. Give an account of medieval life as suggested by the following words: Lord, vassal, fief, castle, chivalry, tournament, manor, villein, guild, town, crusade.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Trace the series of events leading up to the Reign of Terror; describe the Reign of Terror; and point out its effect upon Europe.
4. Trace the development of Russia under the rule of Peter the Great.
5. Describe the problems with which Bismarck had to deal as Chancellor of the new German Empire, and point out how he met them.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

6. Explain the historical connection and allusions of the following passage:
"The Pope now rose, as the reading of the Gospel ended, advanced to where Charles—who had exchanged his simple Frankish dress for the sandals and chlamys of a Roman patrician—knelt in prayer by the high altar, and as in the sight of all he placed

upon the brow of the barbarian chieftain the diadem of the Cæsars, then bent in obeisance before him, the church rang to the shout of the multitude, again free, again the lords and centre of the world. . . ."

7. Show, by specific examples, how the commercial and political relations of Spain, the Netherlands, and France with England were affected by the colonial expansion of England in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 8.)

8. Mark on map 82b or 81b:
 - (a) The approximate boundaries of the Holy Roman Empire under Charles V, and the territorial possessions in Europe of the Hapsburg family.
 - (b) The trade routes between Europe and India before the discovery of an all-sea route.
 - (c) The empire of Napoleon I at its greatest extent.

GROUP V. (Answer question 9 and either 10 or 11.)

9. Write notes on five of the following topics: The Troubadours, the Golden Bull, the Carbonari, the Beggars of the Sea, the reforms of Colbert, Novgorod, Florentine bankers, the Sistine Chapel.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
10. Describe the "Revival of Learning."
11. What influences and institutions do you find in the history of medieval and modern Europe that have made for general peace? In the light of these discuss the prospects of the modern peace movement.

DIVISION III: MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. What European States were involved in the Seven Years' War? What were the causes of this war? What were the results for each of the States involved?
2. What series of events led up to the convocation of the Estates-General in 1789?
3. What part did Great Britain play in the overthrow of Napoleon I? Write upon the dissensions among the allied powers during the negotiations for the settlement of Europe after Napoleon's overthrow.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. Trace the steps in the unification of Italy. How far was Napoleon III responsible for the success of this movement?
5. Write fully upon any two of the following persons: Abdul Hamid II, Thiers, Charles Darwin, Witte.
6. Give an account of the reign of Nicholas II of Russia.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. What was the policy of the Jacobin party during the French Revolution? Were its members high-minded patriots or bloodthirsty ruffians? Give reasons for your answer.
8. What is meant by the industrial revolution? Illustrate your answer. Why did the industrial revolution occur at a later date on the Continent than in Great Britain?
9. Of what advantage are Great Britain's colonial possessions to her? Why has Germany been eager to obtain colonies?

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 10.)

10. Mark on map 112b or 82b:
 - (a) The territorial additions made to Prussia, with approximate dates of each addition, during the nineteenth century.
 - (b) The territories of Austria-Hungary, Turkey-in-Europe, and the Balkan States before the Balkan wars of 1912-1913.
 - (c) Seven of the following places: Riga, Sedan, Toulon, Blenheim, Leipzig, Hull, Navarino, Lyons, Elba.

GROUP V. (Answer question 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write notes on five of the following topics: national workshops in 1848, State socialism in Germany, the romanticist movement in literature, the Ems despatch, "Made in Germany," Bulgarian atrocities, Russian music.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
12. Why has the nineteenth-century revival of the sense of nationality been particularly dangerous to Austria-Hungary? Explain how it has affected the international position and the internal organization of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.
13. Upon what does the claim of the French rest, that France is the intellectual leader of Europe? Give reasons for your answer.

DIVISION IV: ENGLISH HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: John Wyclif, Mary Queen of Scots, Simon de Montfort, the Black Prince.
2. What were the reforms of Henry II? Show the purpose of each.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Benjamin Disraeli, William Pitt the Elder, John Bright, Robert Walpole.
4. The Seven Years' War.
5. Trace the series of events leading up to the Treaty of Utrecht.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

6. Do you think the people of Ulster are justified in opposing Home Rule? Give your reasons.
7. How did the attitude of Parliament toward Henry VIII differ from the attitude of Parliament toward Charles I? How do you explain this difference?
8. Show how the industrial revolution in England influenced English politics during the nineteenth century.

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 9.)

9. Mark on map 81b or 120b:
 - (a) Five of the following places: Majuba Hill, Plassey, Khartum, Sebastopol, Lucknow, Halifax.
 - (b) The parts of Britain which were never occupied by the Anglo-Saxons.
 - (c) Two cathedral cities in England, two places in England important in industry, one place in Scotland important in industry.

GROUP V. (Answer question 10 and either 11 or 12.)

10. Write notes on five of the following topics: Benevolences, John Wilkes, the Salisbury Oath, English inventors, confirmation of the Charters, feudal incidents, Covenanters.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
11. Show how England's possession of India has influenced her foreign policy since 1800.
12. Describe an English fair in the Middle Ages. Explain the importance of these fairs.

DIVISION V: AMERICAN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on the public services of any two of the following persons: Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, James G. Blaine, John Hay.
2. Write a narrative of the events leading up to the Federal Convention of 1787.
3. What colonies belonged to the New England Confederation, and why did they confederate? Describe another attempt at union made before the Revolution.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. State the attitude of each of the following men toward slavery in the United States: John Quincy Adams, John C. Calhoun, Stephen A. Douglas, Charles Sumner, Henry Clay, Abraham Lincoln.
5. Trace the relations of the United States with Cuba from the middle of the nineteenth century to the present day.
6. Trace the development of means of transportation since the formation of the Union.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. Discuss the accuracy of two of the following statements:
 - (a) America was discovered in 1492.
 - (b) The Declaration of Independence was signed on July 4, 1776.
 - (c) With the acquisition of the Philippine Islands the United States became a colonizing power.
8. Discuss the candidates and issues in the presidential election of 1896.
9. How did the national banking system established during the Civil War differ from the National Bank incorporated in 1791?

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 10.)

10. Mark on map 175b:
 - (a) The so-called Oregon country; and the claims made at different times by rival powers to territorial rights.
 - (b) Lines to indicate, at the following dates, the extent of white settlement in the territory now belonging to the United States: 1700, 1789, 1820.
 - (c) Eight rivers or river valleys which have served as highways in the westward movement of population.

GROUP V. (Answer question 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write notes on five of the following topics: Loyalists, the Treaty of Ghent, the McCormick reaper, Pennsylvania "Dutch," the Liberator, the Molasses Act of 1733, the Know-Nothing Party.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
12. Describe the different methods by which presidents have been nominated.
13. How does the United States govern the Philippines, Alaska, Porto Rico, Hawaii?

COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATION IN HISTORY,
SEPTEMBER, 1916.¹

Selecting one of the five divisions, answer fully six questions as there required. Take about two hours of your time for these six questions.

If you have studied in your school course only one of these divisions, answer one, or two, or three additional questions from that division.

If, on the other hand, you have studied two or more of these divisions, answer three additional questions not in the division first selected.

DIVISION I: ANCIENT HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Philip II of Macedon, Aristotle, Agesilaus, Timoleon.
2. Trace the series of events that led up to the oligarchic revolution of 411 B. C. in Athens.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Scipio the Younger (Aemilianus), Sulla, Nero, Mohammed.
4. Trace the series of events that led up to the reforms of the Gracchi.

¹ In September, 1916, the only paper set was this Comprehensive Examination paper.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

5. Do you think the following statement is justified? Give reasons for your opinion.
"All hopes of freemen, all ideals of political aspiration, all causes worth fighting for, perished with the Roman Republic, and the world entered on a period of its history in which its life seems to be weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable."
6. Discuss the following statement:
"Wherever in Hellas a tendency toward national union appeared, it was based on games and art."

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 7.)

7. Mark on map 134b or 135b or 130b:
 - (a) The territory annexed by Rome between the Third Samnite War and the tribunate of Tiberius Gracchus.
 - (b) The chief cities of eight countries which entered in an important way into the history of the ancient world prior to 200 B. C.
 - (c) The five largest islands in the Aegean Sea.

GROUP V. (Answer question 8 and either 9 or 10.)

8. Write notes on five of the following topics: Coloni, election by lot, the Appian Way, monotheism in the Egyptian religion, liturgies, the Gabinian law, the Achaean League.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
9. Trace the development of the Greek drama. Tell why it had such a great influence upon the Greeks. Name three Greek dramatists and one play by each.
10. What influences that affected Roman life operated to make Cicero a different kind of man from Cato the Elder?

DIVISION II: MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: Michael Angelo, John Huss, Dante, Louis XI.
2. Of what did feudalism consist? What were the causes of the gradual breaking down of feudalism? Make clear your answer to the latter question by illustrations from the history of more than one country.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Give an account of the development of Brandenburg-Prussia from the accession of Frederick William the Great Elector to the death of Frederick the Great.
4. Trace the series of events that led up to the Franco-German war of 1870-71.
5. Give an account of the gradual breaking up of the Ottoman Empire from 1815 to the present day.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

6. Compare the position of the King in France in the time of Hugh Capet and in that of Philip the Fair. Give reasons for the change.
7. Under which of the Popes, in your opinion, did the Papal power reach its height? Give definite reasons for your answer.
8. Compare Metternich's policy of "intervention" with the modern denial to small nations of the "right to existence."

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 9.)

9. Mark on map 82b or 112b:
 - (a) The regions into which the Northmen extended their settlements in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries.
 - (b) The States or parts of States which remained in revolt from the Papacy at the end of the sixteenth century.
 - (c) The duchy of Normandy, the Confederation of the Rhine, Lübeck, Pisa, Ghent.

GROUP V. (Answer question 10 and either 11 or 12.)

10. Write notes on five of the following topics: Florence during the Renaissance, heresy, the Reign of Terror, the Counter Reformation, chivalry, scholasticism, Gabelle, German customs union.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
11. Write fully upon conditions in Germany just before the Protestant revolt.
12. How was the later history of Europe affected by the Crusading movement?

DIVISION III: MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following persons: William Pitt the Younger, Robespierre, Mazzini, Karl Marx.
2. Give an account of the reign of Frederick the Great.
3. Describe the various plans by which Napoleon I tried to defeat England. Why did each plan fail?

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. Sketch the history of the political relations of the European powers with China from 1800 to the present day.
5. How did the Christian States of the Balkan Peninsula attain their independence? How do you explain the existing rivalries among them?
6. What has led to the estrangement between Germany and England during the last twenty years? In what incidents has this estrangement been manifested?

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. What permanent advantages has France derived from the revolution of 1789? from that of 1848? from the Third Republic?
8. Compare the circumstances in which the unifications of Germany and Italy were effected, with special reference to foreign complications and internal difficulties encountered.
9. What underlying causes have led to the general adoption in Europe of universal military service? What do you think of the advantages and disadvantages of this system?

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 10.)

10. Mark on map 82b or 112b or 81b:
 - (a) The capitals of eight European countries.
 - (b) The rivers of Europe flowing into the Baltic and the North Sea, and at least one important city on each river.
 - (c) Those countries of Asia and Africa that have not fallen under the dominion of European powers.

GROUP V. (Answer question 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write notes on five of the following topics: Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations;" the emancipation of the serfs in Russia; the Concordat of 1801; the Utopian Socialists; the Hague Conferences; Syndicalism; the work of Rodin.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
12. Give an account of the life and work of two of the following scientists: Faraday, Pasteur, and Darwin.
13. By what methods has the British government in recent years undertaken to "make war on poverty?"

DIVISION IV: ENGLISH HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Give an account of the series of events which culminated in the signing of Magna Charta.
2. Narrate the series of events which led to the resistance of Parliament to Charles I.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

3. Write a narrative of the events leading up to the revolution of 1688.

4. Write an account of the foreign policy of Queen Elizabeth.
5. Give an account of the rise and growth of the British Empire, as suggested by the following headings: Clive, Plains of Abraham, George Washington, Lord Durham, Sir John Macdonald, Cecil Rhodes, Lord Cromer, protectorate, crown colony, imperial federation.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

6. What did any five of the following men do to further or retard the establishment of Home Rule in Ireland: Gladstone, Joseph Chamberlain, Parnell, Balfour, Asquith, John Redmond, Edward Carson?
7. Discuss the accuracy of the following statements: The British Constitution does not exist. The Norman Conquest was a blessing in disguise.
8. Explain the attitudes of the British industrial and governing classes toward the American Civil War.

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 9.)

9. Mark on map 81b:
 - (a) Five naval battles won by England.
 - (b) The chief dependencies of Great Britain in the Western Hemisphere.
 - (c) Seven important commercial ports of the British Empire in the Orient.

GROUP V. (Answer question 10 and either 11 or 12)

10. Write brief notes on five of the following topics: Enclosures, rise of Methodism, the public life of Milton, the "lake country," merchant adventurers, the wool-sack, Westminster Abbey, the Stone of Scone.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
11. Write an account of the history of education as suggested by the following headings: Universities, friars, learning under the Tudors, grammar schools, Gladstone's first ministry.
12. Explain the great parliamentary acts of the nineteenth century which are said to have made England a democracy.

DIVISION V: AMERICAN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question only.)

1. Write fully on any two of the following men: Daniel Webster, Alexander Hamilton, William Lloyd Garrison, George III.
2. Describe fully the different types of government (including local government) that existed in the colonies on the eve of the Revolution.
3. Name the colonies settled by the largest non-English elements, and explain in each case the reasons that led these peoples to leave their former homes.

GROUP II. (Answer one question only.)

4. Trace the series of events that led up to the War of 1812.
5. Trace the series of events that led up to the first election of Abraham Lincoln to the presidency of the United States.
6. Trace the series of events that led up to the Geneva Arbitration of 1871-72.

GROUP III. (Answer one question only.)

7. What was Jacksonian democracy? Compare it with the Progressive movement of 1912.
8. Trace the rise of labor unions. Are they beneficial to the community?
9. Discuss the statement that the giving of the ballot to the negro was a "crime."

GROUP IV. (Answer two parts only of question 10.)

10. Mark on map 175b or 81b:
 - (a) The slave States which did not secede.
 - (b) The territory of the United States in 1789, the additions made to this territory before the Spanish-American War, and the approximate date of each acquisition.
 - (c) The present centers of coal mining, cotton raising, woolen manufacturing, and gold mining.

GROUP V. (Answer question 11 and either 12 or 13.)

11. Write notes on five of the following topics: The War against the United States Bank, the Era of Good Feeling, the X, Y, Z, Affair, "Cotton is King," colonial means of communication, the achievements of George Rogers Clark, wampum, the Great Awakening.
What books, or selections from books, have you read in addition to your textbook on any of the above topics, or on any other subjects connected with the course?
12. Describe the process that has actually been used in amending the Constitution of the United States.
13. By what authority and through what agency does the United States control interstate commerce?

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Lady St. Halier writes most sympathetically and most understandingly of England's debt to "K. of K." in her article on "Kitchener England's Man of Iron" in the October "Harper's." The same magazine contains Herbert Adams Gibbons' "The Perfumes and Perspectives of Grasse," and also Thornton Oakley's entertaining sketch "On the Indian Railway," in which he recounts his experiences crossing India.

President Eliot's article on the Democratic administration in the October "Atlantic" is worth everyone's reading. It is, on the whole, a defence of the past administration, although the author does not justify the actions of the President in quite so decided a manner as he upholds the party policy. Seven good points of the Administration are emphasized, and cogent reasons for the continuance of the present party in power are set forth.

"The New Army Act and the Militia," by Erie Fisher Wood, in the October "Century," denounces the article as "worse than nothing," "passed for petty political reasons and against the united opposition of our military experts." The article is worth reading, for it is the result of conferences with its chief opponents. The same magazine has an interesting discussion of Mr. Lloyd-George by S. K. Ratcliffe, of "The Manchester Guardian," a prominent Liberal journalist. It is most critical, not only of the noted Minister's policies, but also of his abilities.

Samuel O. Dunn's "Ten Years of Railroad Regulation," in the October "Scribner's," is of especial interest as throwing light on the circumstances leading to the passage of the Adamson Bill.

Joseph Gilpin Pyle's "Life of James J. Hill" begins in the October "World's Work." The same magazine has an admirable defense of President Wilson by Paul Fuller, and an equally pertinent article on "The Case for Hughes," by Frederick M. Davenport.

J. C. Long publishes in the "Outlook" for October 4 the results of his interview with Miss Isabel Sloan, district secretary of the National Federation of Women Workers of England, under the title, "American and British Reconstruction After the War."

James Le Count Chestnut's paper on "History from the Viewpoint of the Grammar Grade Teacher" ("Education" for October) gives a careful analysis of methods and equipment employed in grade schools, the preparation of the teacher, and of the results that may be expected.

The "Independent" for October contains a photograph from an aeroplane of the battlefield of Verdun which is worth examining. The same magazine contains an article, political on the whole, by Charles Evans Hughes on "Shall Force or Reason Rule."

"The Effects of Roumania's Decision," by Sidney Brooks ("North American Review" for October), is a discussion of the effects on Roumania's land questions, political situation and constitutional advancement.

In the September number of the "American Journal of Social Science," Arthur C. Parker, executive secretary of the Society of American Indians, insists that Congress through the Indian Bureau must give to the Indians "an intellectual life; a social organization; economic independence; the right of freedom; the God of nations; a good name among nations; the right of assured status."

"The Origin of Friar Lands Question in the Philippines," by Charles H. Cunningham ("American Political Science Review" for September), is a careful study of economic conditions in the Philippines, and especially of the detrimental rents of the friar system.

"The Adventures of Matthew Quirk" ("Blackwood's" for September) is a true narrative of the adventures of a soldier of the Peninsular War. The author was taken prisoner at Corunna in 1808 and held at Verdun. The narration of his escape and recapture is a marvelous account of human endurance and determination.

James Westfall Thompson's article on "The German Church and the Conversion of the Baltic Slavs" ("American Journal of Theology," July) gives the account of the destruction of northern paganism taken from the German enemies.

"Italy opened the war under disadvantages, political, economic, financial and geographic. Cross currents and opposing forces caused obstruction and delay," but "Italian officers and troops show courage and devotion to duty and a capacity for intelligent organization which has enabled them to overcome the difficulties of inadequate preparation and unfavorable geographical position," says Sidney Low in his article on "The Campaign of Italy" in the "Fortnightly Review" for September.

"The Reflections of a Danish Scholar on the War," by Otto Jesperen, in the "Educational Review" for October, gives us a "real cause of the war" the fact "that until now in signing a peace or in concluding a treaty, there was but little concern for the wishes of individual nations, the comparative strength of the States being the determining factor."

Mary Segar discusses "Medieval War Poetry" most delightfully in the July number of the "Dublin Review."

The Rev. Prof. H. H. Scullard's article on "The City of God," in the "Contemporary Review" for September, is a comparison of the conditions under which St. Augustine wrote with those of our own time.

Students of the American Indian will enjoy W. McD. Tait's account of "Childhood in an Indian Wigwam" in the "Canadian Magazine" for October.

Reports from The Historical Field

"Civics as Taught in the New Bedford Industrial School," by Russell B. Leonard, appears in "Education" for October, 1916. The work in civics is arranged according to a series of levels which are displayed graphically, and thus kept clearly in the pupil's mind. Topical outlines are used to a considerable degree, books and pamphlets are consulted, and men holding responsible civic or business positions address the school weekly. A large bulletin board displays items of city, State, and national civics.

The Northwestern Association of History, Government and Economic Teachers is planning an exhibit of materials which may serve as aids to history teachers. The exhibit will be permanently housed at the State College of Washington (Pullman). The association will pay the expense of mounting and preparing the exhibit, and the college agrees to furnish a suitable room. The idea of such a collection was gained from that undertaken by the New England History Teachers' Association, which in turn was an outgrowth of the exhibit at Teachers' College, Columbia University, in 1909. It is planned to make the Northwestern collection as comprehensive as possible, and the portable part of the exhibit will be sent out to educational associations and teachers' institutes throughout the northwestern territory.

Teachers of civics as well as instructors in history interested in learning of the "Havoc Brought by Prohibition!" should write to the National Wholesale Liquor Dealers' Association, 301 United Bank Building, Cincinnati, Ohio. This association has been sending out much material for newspapers, including cartoons, photographs and editorials directed to the laboring classes.

"A History of Negro Musicians" is the title of a paper contributed by John E. Bruce, president of the Negro Historical Society of New York, to the October, 1916, number of "The Southern Workman." Probably the most interesting story is that in connection with a negro minstrel, George Milburn, who is the composer of "Listen to the Mocking Bird." Milburn received twenty copies of the song as his share in the profits while publishers realized \$100,000.

The third session of the Ohio History Teachers' Association was held at Columbus in the Ohio Archaeological and Historical Society Building, Friday and Saturday, October 13 and 14. The program was as follows: Friday, October 13, 2 o'clock p. m., general subject, "The Gradation of School Work in History," Mr. George A. Washburn, North High School, Columbus; Miss Mary M. Cumings, High School, Painesville, and Mr. Earl E. Smith, High School, Youngstown. Dinner at Ohio Union, 6.00 to 7.30 o'clock p. m.

Eight o'clock p. m., address, "Observations on History Teaching in the Public Schools," Superintendent John H. Francis, Columbus; address, "Methods of Teaching History in College," Prof. Clarence P. Gould, College of Wooster. Discussion.

Saturday, October 14, 9.30 a. m., address, "Some Ohio Historians," Prof. Clarence E. Carter, Miami University, Oxford; address, "A Lesson in History," Miss Elizabeth Thorndyke, Hughes High School, Cincinnati; address, "The Choice and Management of Reading Supplementary to the Textbook," Miss Drusilla M. Reilly, High School, Lima. Discussion.

Reports of committees: Committee on the Source-Book of Ohio History, Prof. H. C. Hockett, Ohio State University; Board of Editors of the Ohio History Teachers' Journal; Treasurer of the Ohio History Teachers' Association, Dr. Wilmer C. Harris, Ohio State University; Committee on Nominations.

The Executive Committee in charge of the session was as follows: Wilbur H. Siebert, president, Columbus; Augusta P. Dickson, secretary, Dayton; Wilmer C. Harris, treasurer, Columbus; Clarence P. Gould, Wooster; and Joseph M. Lewis, Cincinnati.

The Wisconsin History Teachers' Association will meet at Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee, on Thursday, November 2, at 2 p. m. The following papers will be presented: "The Place of Economics in the High School Course," by Prof. D. O. Kinsman, of Lawrence College; "Dramatization in the Teaching of History," by Miss S. M. Porter, of Racine High School; "Methods of Teaching History," by Miss Aleida J. Peters, of Oshkosh Normal School; "The Content of the High School Course in History and Civil Government," by Prof. W. J. Chase, of University of Wisconsin; and "Some Aspects of War History," by Prof. C. R. Fish, of University of Wisconsin.

Prof. J. M. Callahan, head of the Department of History and Political Science at West Virginia University since 1902, has been chosen Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences of that institution. He will continue his lectures in two advanced history courses.

President A. Lawrence Lowell, of Harvard University, addressed the Freshman Class of Yale University on October 15, 1915, on the topic, "Liberty and Discipline." The address has recently been published in pamphlet form by the Yale University Press (25 cents).

"A Handbook for Latin Clubs" (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) is edited by Susan Paxson, teacher of Latin in the Central High School, Omaha. It contains a series of valuable bibliographical aids and source selections not only for teachers of Latin, but also for teachers of ancient history. Page references are given to many works bearing upon such topics as the following: "The Value of Latin," "The Roman Forum," "The Roman House," "The Roman Slaves," "The Roman Children," "Education Among the Romans," "Some Common Professions and Trades Among the Romans," "The Roman Soldier," "Some Famous Women of Ancient Rome," "The Roman Holidays," "Funeral Customs and Burial Places," "Some Famous Buildings of Ancient Rome," "Some Famous Roman Letters," "A Roman Banquet," "Some Famous Pictures and Sculpture." Many translations from the classics are given as the basis for programs of exhibition work in Latin.

Prof. Louis B. Schmidt, of the Iowa State Agricultural College, contributed to the "Mississippi Valley Historical Review," Vol. 3, No. 1, a paper upon "The Economic History of American Agriculture as a Field for Study." Students of the industrial and economic history of the United States will read with interest the many topics proposed for advance study in American agriculture.

Dr. Samuel P. Capen, of the United States Bureau of Education, has prepared a new list of "Accredited Secondary Schools in the United States" (Bulletin No. 20, 1916). The list of such high schools is rapidly growing. In 1910-11 there were 12,213 and in 1913-14 there were 13,714.

The Association of Colleges and Normal and Secondary Schools of the Upper Ohio Valley will hold its seventh an-

nual meeting at the University of Pittsburgh, Friday and Saturday, December 1 and 2. The association meetings will be addressed by Prof. James T. Shotwell, of Columbia University, and President J. Campbell White, of Wooster College. Sectional meetings will also be held for the discussion of problems in connection with the teaching of various subjects in school and college curriculum.

The annual fall meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association was held at Brown University, Providence, R. I., on Saturday, October 21. The meeting was arranged in co-operation with the Rhode Island History Teachers' Association. The annual business meeting and election of officers was held, and this was followed by a preliminary report of the committee appointed to prepare an outline of topics for emphasis in ancient history. This committee is co-operating with similar committees of the American Historical Association and with other regional associations in defining a series of topics for each of the periods of high school history. Luncheon was served at Brown University, and addresses were made at the luncheon by President W. H. Faunce, of Brown University, and the Rev. Dr. G. G. Atkins, of the Central Congregational Church, of Providence. In connection with the meeting an exhibit was made of "Authentic Pictorial Material for the Study of European History," which has been published by the association.

The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland will hold a conference in Goucher College, Baltimore, Md., on Saturday, December 2. The meeting will be in connection with the annual session of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. The main topic for discussion will be "The Teaching of Current History, Current Civics, and Current Economics." Sub-topics for discussion will be "The Use of Periodicals in the Class Room" and "The Place of Current Topics in the School Program."

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

BULLARD, ARTHUR. *The Diplomacy of the Great War.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xii, 344. \$1.50.

In preparing this volume the author has tried to present the main facts in an elementary and clear fashion for the general reader. For the most part he has been very successful. He has divided his book into four parts. Part I (160 pages) is a survey of the diplomatic history of Europe since 1878. Occasionally, as in dealing with the Treaty of Berlin, the author presupposes more knowledge of the facts than the average reader is likely to have; but as a whole this survey is excellent. The author expresses himself clearly, uses excellent human illustrative material which is easily understood, and is careful to show the points of view not merely of various nations, but rather of different parties within each of the great nations. He leans slightly toward the Allies, especially the French, but shows up their weak points very frankly. Part II (56 pages) deals with new problems with which diplomacy now has to do more than ever before, such as "the principle of nationality," the economic struggles of nations, colonial rivalries, and the growth of keener public opinion. Part III (62 pages) is pure hypothesis, the author says. In it he suggests solutions that may possibly come as results of the war. Part IV (46 pages) "deals with the diplomatic relations be-

tween the United States and Europe." Here the author tells how the war has affected our diplomacy already, and is likely further to affect it. A select bibliography with a description of each book follows the text.

Mr. Bullard has written an excellent book which should fill a real demand for clear statements of facts and suggestive ideas. It seems to the reviewer to be the most impartial and the best brief book of its kind. It will be very useful for reading references in high school courses on modern European history and for the information of the average American.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

ADAMS, JOHN QUINCY. Writings of. Edited by W. C. Ford. Vol. VI, 1816-1819. New York: Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xxvii, 573. \$3.50.

This volume falls easily into two parts. The first 184 pages contain correspondence while Adams was Minister in London, the remainder of the book, letters written while he was Secretary of State, most of them from Washington. The diplomatic interest of the first part is slight, as Adams had before this period concluded the convention of 1815, and secured no more important results while he was Minister. Of more interest, and indeed of some present timeliness, are his observations on the state of Europe, and particularly of England, after the great wars. While discounting as exaggerated much of the talk of distress, he nevertheless thought that England would be forced to some form of debt repudiation (98, 146). He was impressed with the political unity of Europe, and alarmed at the special characteristics of that union (247-248). His own views, as regards the United States, intensified in their sturdy nationalism (138). Of passing interest are suggestions made to him that we purchase certain Danish islands in the East Indies and the rumor that we were negotiating for a Neapolitan island (100-101).

The chief contribution of the second portion is to the South American question. Although the letters add nothing definite to our knowledge, they demand the attention of students of that field. The letters relating to other diplomatic issues are of no particular importance. Not so those relating to Adams' administration of his office. Where Adams, for the first time in his life found himself driven by work, one wonders, and others expressed wonder at the time, how Monroe managed, or later Clay. He can only suggest that they must have had a greater degree of *facilité de travail*, which does not seem likely. He was still opposed, as he had been, to long residences abroad, particularly in the case of "young Americans," but he had abandoned his view of the desirability of missions to small countries, and supported the Republican policy of a service as much restricted as possible, though he favored large salaries. His letters of admonition to young men in the service are quite as candid as those to his sons at school. It must have required talent to love him. The last eight pages contain a discussion of the question of "first calls" between department heads and members of Congress—and their wives. If one were not under the necessity of taking what Adams says absolutely at its face value, it would seem that he side-stepped prettily.

The editing, while continuing to be irreproachable within the limits which the editor placed upon himself, still leaves something to be desired. On page 28, Adams is allowed in one paragraph to refer to the number of slaves mentioned in a certain deposition as "seventy-one" and "twenty-one," and the reader is left in doubt as to which is correct. While cross-reference is made in the case of letters previously printed in the "American State Papers," no mention is made of a previous printing in the "American Historical Review"

(XI, 88-116) of certain letters to Alexander Everett. This is the more curious as the printing of the letters is not precisely identical ("Am. Hist. Review," XI, 106, "was," "Writings," VI, 200, "were"), and the letters are given in full in the "Review," whereas they are cut (omission indicated) in the "Writings."

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

University of Wisconsin.

ANDERSON, DICE ROBINS. William Branch Giles: A Study in the Politics of Virginia and the Nation from 1790 to 1830. Menasha, Wis.: George Banta Publishing Co., 1914. Pp. xv, 271. \$1.50.

This book serves two purposes: It recites on many of its pages the development of political ideas and parties in national politics at an interesting period of our history. And, it gives an adequate appraisal of one of the public men of Virginia whose career the author believes others have not been able fully to appreciate, and may have in a measure misrepresented. That Dr. Anderson has not succeeded in provoking admiration of his subject is a tribute to his faithful presentation of Giles' life. The real service that Giles, who for a quarter of a century was a member of Congress, was the assistance he gave to the organization of the Republican party and its maintenance in power. The success that Jefferson had in making of Giles a political supporter is another evidence of his greatness as a leader. But at first a friend of Madison, he broke with the administration and for the rest of his political life he was in a measure a free lance. After retiring from active politics for a decade, he became governor of the State, and later a member of the constitutional convention of 1829, with nothing especially striking to mark his return to politics. At best he can be rated as an interesting politician who was locally important.

But this biography serves perhaps a still better purpose than the telling of Giles' life. The local situation in Virginia in its relation to national politics is illustrated again and again in an interesting and instructive way. Jefferson's political organization, the effect of Jay's treaty on Virginia, an account of the hostility of the judiciary to Jefferson, effect of the embargo on the South, cause of opposition to the re-charter of the bank in 1811—the discussion of these throws a stimulating light on already well known facts.

Reference to Ritchie on page 181 as "One, Thomas Ritchie" is hardly up to the dignity of the rest of the narrative. A few misspelled words (pages 173, 176) escaped the proofreader. Similar studies of the lives of other public men who may not have been original in politics or leaders in their party will serve to correct and broaden impressions which our general histories have made.

H. M. HENBY.

Emory and Henry College.

HENDERSON, ERNEST F. A Short History of Germany. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Two volumes. Pp. xi, 517; vii, 604. \$3.50 per set.

In this revised edition the author presents three new chapters full of vital, timely material exceedingly illuminative of the characteristics of this nation. The first of these is entitled, "Political Developments from 1871 to 1914," and recounts the hostilities between Church and State in the Kulturkampf, the rise of the Social Democracy and the government's relation to this group, the beginnings of colonial interests, the formation of the Dreibund, the fall of Bismarck, the imperial administration of Alsace-Lorraine, and the government's solutions of the Danish and Polish problems. The chapter, "Economic Progress be-

tween 1871 and 1914," reveals the manifold ways in which the German people have been organized to achieve the commercial and industrial efficiency which has caused wonder in some sections of the world and apprehension in others. "Social Progress between 1871 and 1914" is the last of the new chapters, and here Germany's watchful care over her citizens from the cradle to the grave is plainly set forth.

This work has long been considered by most competent judges the best in this field for the high school library, and the author's extension of its scope to 1914 has greatly enhanced its value for the history teacher and his pupils.

SANFORD, ALBERT H. *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1916. Pp. iv, 394. \$1.00.

This is a history of the American farmer as well as of farming in America, telling how he lived as well as how he made his living, and presenting a series of descriptions of rural society in colonial New England, the Middle States, the South, the "back country," and along the frontier. Not only does the narrative make clear to how great a degree the American farmer has made his country's history, but also many of our leading statesmen are shown to its readers as farmers and earnest students of agriculture. Thus Washington, Jefferson, Livingston and Webster are seen, and Franklin appears as the advocate of agricultural education for young men. Following the descriptions of social conditions comes a series of short chapters describing the development of agricultural machinery, life on the range and the ranch, the growth of animal husbandry and dairying, the forms of agriculture peculiar to different sections, the hard times prevailing among farmers in the eighties and nineties of the last century, agriculture in our island possessions, together with similar aspects of the subject. The narrative is clear, the author's selection of material is excellent, and the abundant pictures and sketch maps are well chosen and well made. It will make an excellent reader for schools in rural communities, a serviceable book in public libraries, and good supplementary material for pupils in American history.

FIFE, ROBERT HERNDON. *The German Empire Between Two Wars. A Study of the Political and Social Development of the Nation Between 1871 and 1914*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xiv, 400. \$1.50.

At the present time when Germany is either being extravagantly praised or vigorously cursed, a sane, informing and readable account of recent Germany is welcome. Dr. Fife has not written a war book, though he felt it important to start with a survey of German foreign relations and ambitions for expansion. To this he has devoted the first hundred pages, and has given a very clear and fair account. He seems inclined to sympathize with the German point of view, but he does not rave. Perhaps his task was easier because he has not touched the immediate causes of the outbreak of war in 1914.

"Part II. The Empire at Home" deals with government and politics, and economic and social conditions in various sections of Germany. Here Dr. Fife deprecates the vast power of the conservative and feudal land owners, but shows himself optimistic over the growth of industrialism and liberalism. Part III is entitled, "The Empire's Problems." Here the author takes up the growth and influence of the Social Democrats, the power wielded by the Roman Catholic Church in German politics owing to the skilful organization of the Center Party, and the problems of dealing with Alsace-Lorraine and the Poles.

In some respects Part IV is the best section of the book. Here Dr. Fife gives an excellent brief account of German city government and municipal socialistic activities, German schools and the problem of religious teaching in them, and the press and its influence over public opinion. Much of this material is very illuminating. Dr. Fife throughout shows a very thorough grasp of his subject and a very friendly attitude toward Germany and things German, and yet he does not hesitate to criticize what he feels deserves it, specially the undemocratic features of German government and the many phases of individual activity which it controls. The book deserves to be widely read and should be purchased by libraries. It will be very useful as reference reading for the more mature high school students, both of history and German. CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

SLATER, GILBERT. *The Making of Modern England*. New revised edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1915. Pp. xli, 308. \$2.00.

This is a book on England during the last hundred years. It is written by the head of Ruskin College, the Oxford College for working-men, and has evidently grown out of a series of lectures on labor conditions, life of the people, and social progress. In consequence it stresses throughout the condition of the working classes, the rise of labor organizations, and problems of labor as such. The revised edition contains two admirable introductory chapters on "England at the Beginning of the Eighteenth Century" and "The Transformation of England in the Eighteenth Century," besides an introductory note by Prof. James T. Shotwell.

The book is neither a political history nor an economic history, but a series of studies which give a fairly connected view of the real progress and development of the English people. The best of the studies are probably those on the condition of the common people. The two in the new introductory chapters are supplemented by two others on the rural worker and the urban worker a hundred years ago. Social reforms after 1815, such as the abolition of death penalties, receive far less attention than do the organization of labor unions and the early legalization of combinations of labor. Three chapters are given to the reforms in the poor laws in municipal organization, and in the factory laws, which followed the parliamentary reform in 1832.

Although comparatively little attention is paid to Ireland before 1850, Dr. Slater brings out with startling clearness the fact that after the famines (1845-1848) "the people starved not in consequence of a deficiency in the total quantity of food, but purely because their contracts with the landlords compelled them to send the food out of the country [in order to pay their rents], instead of consuming it themselves." In a later chapter, Dr. Slater considers the Irish question from the standpoint of the Irish people rather than of the parliamentary relief acts.

In discussing changes in British industry, Dr. Slater shows the effect of America and Germany. "The influence of American industrial development upon that of our own country has been direct and powerful," especially in the case of the American trust which has forced English manufacturers to use larger plants. "America has also influenced the business methods of Great Britain by shaking them out of their conservatism." "The influence of Germany on contemporary British industrial development has been less direct, but even more important than that of America." Co-operation among German workmen and German technical and university training are particularly

noted. In these days it is a pleasure to have an Englishman acknowledge that "the whole of our movement for technical education is a frank imitation of the German example," even if the words were penned before the opening of the great European war.

Dr. Slater not only devotes a chapter to free trade at the time the corn laws were repealed, but considers the question again in connection with the tariff controversies of recent years. He contends that even under the protectionist argument, conditions in England favor free trade rather than protection, but he does not emphasize the fact that England benefited chiefly from free trade because her industries developed earlier than those of other countries.

There is an interesting chapter on public elementary education during the middle of the last century, but nothing on recent educational controversies. The influence of the education of girls on the demand for something better than the old "patriarchal" family laws is brought out. One is disappointed that nothing is said about the important social reforms which the Liberal Ministry has made since 1906.

In its American form the book is intended for college students. It is time that more college men and women understood this side of English history, usually neglected by English historians. For a clear understanding of the story, however, either they will need in addition a better knowledge of English history than college students have or they must use this book side by side with some more formal account of events in England during the last hundred years. To supply these needs the publishers have included a chronological table covering eighteen pages. An exceedingly helpful bibliography of twenty-three pages by Miss Judith B. Williams is also given. There are several charts and a brief index. Students of social and economic history will welcome this volume, and will hope to see soon similar books on earlier phases of English history and on the history of other countries.

R. L. ASHLEY.

Pasadena High School.

MACE, WILLIAM H., AND TANNER, EDWIN P. *The Story of Old Europe and Young America*. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., 1915. Pp. 315. 65 cents.

"This little book is an attempt to provide for the sixth grade a suitable text on the European background of American history. The subject matter is, of course, suggested by the Report of the Committee of Eight." The purpose of the authors thus stated in their preface has been admirably carried out. The style is attractive, and the vocabulary, while more difficult than it should be in some places, is on the whole adapted to the sixth grade.

The great problem in the making of a book that covers events ranging from Rameses II to Sir Walter Raleigh is the problem of elimination. This has been well solved; and yet there are almost as many names of different persons in the stories as there are working days in the school year. Of course, not all of these persons are strangers to the pupils. Particularly to be commended, for simplicity and charm, are the accounts of Roman life and life in the Middle Ages.

The book is amply supplied with maps, some being double-paged and colored. Illustrations are particularly abundant and well executed. Each section of the book is followed by "Leading Facts," of whose usefulness we have grave doubts; "Study Questions," many of them thought-provoking; and "Suggested Readings," a series of helpful references.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912,

OF THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, published monthly, except July and August, at Philadelphia, Pa., for October 1, 1916.

State of Pennsylvania, }
County of Philadelphia. } ss.

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and county aforesaid, personally appeared Albert E. McKinley, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the managing editor of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management, etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business managers are:

Publisher, McKinley Publishing Co.,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Editor, Albert E. McKinley,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Managing Editor, Albert E. McKinley,	Philadelphia, Pa.
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2. That the owners are:

Albert E. McKinley,	Philadelphia, Pa.
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3. That the known bondholders, mortgagees and other security holders owning or holding one per cent. or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are: None.

(Signed) ALBERT E. MCKINLEY.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 28th day of September, 1916.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN, Notary Public.

HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the MAGAZINE.

Alabama History Teachers' Association, T. L. Grove, Tuscaloosa, Ala., member of Executive Council.

American Historical Association—Secretary, Waldo G. Leland, Washington, D. C.

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History Section of Colorado State Teachers' Association—Chairman, Mark J. Sweany, Colorado Springs.

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Teachers' Historical Association of Western Pennsylvania—Secretary, Anna Ankrom, 1108 Franklin Avenue, Wilkesburg, Pa.

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Wisconsin History Teachers' Association—Chairman, A. C. Kingsford, Baraboo High School; secretary, A. H. Sanford, La Crosse Normal School.

BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM AUGUST 26 TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1916

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History.

Adams, John I., D.D. The birth of Mormonism. Boston: Badger. 106 pp. \$1.00, net.

Andrews, Matthew P. Brief history of the United States. Phila.: Lippincott. 368 pp. \$1.00, net.

Bates, William H. Souvenir of early and notable events in the history of Northwest Territory. [Pekin, Ill.: The author.] 31 pp. 25 cents.

Clark, Victor S. History of manufactures in the United States, 1607-1860. Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Inst. 675 pp. (27¼ pp. bibl.). \$6.00.

Daughters of the American Revolution, Nebraska. Collection of Nebraska pioneer reminiscences. Cedar Rapids, Iowa: Torch Press. 361 pp. \$3.00.

Dittenehofer, Abram J. How we elected Lincoln. N. Y.: Harper. 94 pp. 50 cents, net.

Fidelity Trust Co., Newark, N. J. Historic Newark. Newark, N. J. [The Author]. 55 pp. Gratis.

Herdman, Marie L. The history of the United States. N. Y.: Stokes. 496 pp. \$2.50, net.

Historical and biographical records of Columbia and Montour counties, Pennsylvania. In 2 vols. Chicago: J. A. Beers & Co. \$18.00.

Jones, Chester L. Caribbean interests of the United States. N. Y.: Appleton. 379 pp. (15½ pp. bibl.). \$2.50, net.

Sabin, Edward L. With Sam Houston in Texas. Phila.: Lippincott. 320 pp. \$1.25, net.

Staten Island Antiquarian Soc. History-story-legend of the old King's Highway, now Richmond Road, Staten Island. [N. Y.: Hine Bros.]. 27 pp. 25 cents.

Surrey, N. M. M. The commerce of Louisiana during the French regime, 1699-1763. N. Y.: Longmans. 476 pp. 13 pp. bibl.). \$3.50.

Van Winkle, Edward. Manhattan, 1624-1639. N. Y. [The Author]. 47 + 18 pp. \$10.00, net.

Wentz, Abdel R. The beginnings of the German element in York County, Penna. Lancaster, Pa.: Penna. German Soc. 217 pp. (9 pp. bibl.). \$1.00, net.

Wisconsin State Hist. Soc. Library. The Keyes and the Civil War manuscript collections in the library. Madison, Wis.: [The Society]. 20 pp. 10 cents.

Ancient History.

Banks, Edgar J. The seven wonders of the ancient world. [Author director of Babylonian Exp., Univ. of Chicago.] N. Y.: Putnam. 191 pp. \$1.50, net.

Church, Alfred J. The Roman life in the days of Cicero. N. Y.: Macmillan. 291 pp. \$1.50, net.

Treuer, Albert A. A history of Greek economic thought. Chicago: Univ. of Chic. 162 pp. (4 pp. bibl.). 75 cents, net.

European History.

Dubnow, S. M. History of the Jews in Russia and Poland. Vol. 1. From the earliest times to the death of Alexander I (1825). Phila.: Jewish Pub. Soc. 413 pp. \$1.50.

Hayes, Carleton J. H. A political and social history of modern Europe. Vols. 1 and 2. N. Y.: Macmillan. Vol. 1, 582 pp. \$2.00, net. Vol. 2, 726 pp. (bibls.). \$2.25, net.

Madelin, Louis. The French Revolution. N. Y.: Putnam. 661 pp. \$2.50, net.

Stryenski, Casimir. The eighteenth century. N. Y.: Putnam. 344 pp. \$2.50, net.

The Great War.

Anzac, pseudonym. On the Anzac trail; extracts from the diary of a New Zealand sapper. Phila. Lippincott. 210 pp. \$1.00, net.

Belloc, Hilaire. The elements of the great war; the second phase; the Battle of the Marne. N. Y.: Hearst's Inter. Lib. Co. 382 pp. \$1.50, net.

Casualty, pseudonym. "Contemptible." Phila.: Lippincott. 216 pp. \$1.00, net.

Dillon, Emile J. England and Germany. N. Y.: Brentano's. 312 pp. \$3.00, net.

Guyot, Yoes. Causes and consequences of the war. N. Y.: Brentano's. 360 pp. \$3.00, net.

Koester, F. The lies of the Allies. N. Y.: Fatherland Pub. Co. 48 pp.

Somville, Gustav. The road to Liège. N. Y.: Doran. 296 pp. \$1.00, net.

Swinton, Ernest D., and Percy, Alex. I. A year ago; eyewitness's narrative of the war from March 30 to July 18, 1915. N. Y.: Longmans. 217 pp. \$1.00, net.

Medieval History.

Gardner, Arthur. French sculpture of the Thirteenth Century. N. Y.: Stokes. 22 pp. + 50 plates. \$3.00.

Miscellaneous.

- McLaren, William W. A political history of Japan during the Meiji Era, 1867-1912. N. Y.: Scribner. 379 pp. \$3.75, net.
- Nettleton, George H., editor. The book of the Yale pageant, October 21, 1916. New Haven, Conn.: Yale Univ. 243 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Statesman's (The) Year Book, 1916. N. Y.: Macmillan. 1442 pp. \$3.50, net.
- Stevenson, Augusta. Romantic Indiana—a dramatic pageant. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. 185 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Teggart, Frederick J. Prolegomena to history. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. 155-292 pp. (15½ pp. bibl.). \$1.50.

Biography.

- Spender, Harold. General Botha. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 348 pp. \$2.00, net.
- Hughes, Charles E. Addresses of Charles E. Hughes, 1906-1916. N. Y.: Putnam. 363 pp. \$1.00, net.
- Ransom, William L. Charles E. Hughes. N. Y.: Dutton. 353 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Hasbrouck, Louise S. La Salle. N. Y.: Macmillan. 212 pp. 50 cents, net.
- Charnwood, Godfrey R. B., Baron. Abraham Lincoln. N. Y.: Holt. 479 pp. \$1.75, net.
- Campbell, James H. McClellan. N. Y.: Neale Pub. Co. 458 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Madigan, Thomas F. A biographical index of American public men. N. Y.: [The Author, 507 Fifth Ave.]. 246 pp. \$5.00.

- Wilson, James H. The life of General John A. Rawlins. N. Y.: Neale Pub. Co. 514 pp. \$3.50, net.
- Seward, Frederick W. Reminiscences of a war-time statesman and diplomat, 1830-1915. N. Y.: Putnam. 489 pp. \$3.50, net.
- Riley, B. Franklin. The life and times of Booker T. Washington. N. Y. and Chicago: Revell. 301 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Brooks, Eugene C. Woodrow Wilson as president. Chicago: Row, Peterson. 572 pp. \$1.60.

Government and Politics.

- Civil Service Chronicle. Government; New York City; New York State, and Federal. N. Y.: [The Author]. 44 pp. 50 cents.
- Curtis, Lionel. The commonwealth of nations. Pt. 1. N. Y.: Macmillan. 710 pp. \$2.50, net.
- The problem of the commonwealth. N. Y.: Macmillan. 248 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Grant, Arthur J., and others. International relations. N. Y.: Macmillan. 204 pp. 75 cents, net.
- Guthrie, William D. Magna Carta, and other addresses. N. Y.: Lemcke & Beuchner. 282 pp. \$1.50, net.
- Hornbeck, Stanley K. Contemporary politics in the far east. N. Y.: Appleton. 466 pp. \$3.00, net.
- McClure, Wallace. State constitution making with special reference to Tennessee. Nashville, Tenn.: Marshall & Bruce Co. 472 pp. (14 pp. bibl.). \$3.00.
- National Foreign Trade Council, compiler. European economic alliances. N. Y.: [The Compiler]. 118 pp. 25 cents.
- Vattel, Emmerich de. Le droit des gens; ou principes de la loi naturelle. [Reprint and translation.] 3 vols. Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Inst. \$8.00.

History Teachers

Please refer to the September, 1916, issue (page 222), where we announced the

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GENTLEMEN:

My letter of July 9th, written from the mountains, was answered with wonderful promptness. The maps came on September 5th, and the notebooks, etc., about ten days later. I thank you for your attention to the subject. Some of the Wall Maps and Ancient History Topics are already in service. The latter series is a gem. I am pleased with your selections. I shall show these things to other teachers, and hope more orders will come to you.

Whenever you get out new things for teaching history, please send me one copy. I shall probably be writing soon again for some material.

Again thanking you and assuring you of my appreciation,

Very truly yours,

JANIE H. WATKINS.